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Secondary-School Principals

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A SERIES of articles descriptive of practices that are being promoted in administration and supervision and in curriculum, including new or adapted courses, library service, extraclass activities, and reporting pupil progress.

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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1951-52

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The Sixteenth Annual National Conference of members of the National Association of Student Councils will be held in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, June 16-19, 1952.

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

A Department of Secondary Education of the
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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

PAUL E. ELICKER, Executive Secretary

PAUL E. ELICKER, Editor

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1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

YOUR NATIONAL CONVENTION IS IN CINCINNATI, OHIO

Netherland Plaza Hotel - February 16-20, 1952

36th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Convention Theme:

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Opening Session on "Critical Issues in Secondary Education," Saturday morning, February 16, and sessions continually until Wednesday afternoon, February 20. Annual Banquet session on Saturday evening. Wives of members are invited to attend.

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**PLAN TO MEET YOUR PROFESSIONAL FRIENDS
IN CINCINNATI, OHIO**

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Toward Better Supervisors

LESTER VANDER WERF

THE nation's youth need good teachers. To keep both growing our schools need good supervisors too. Because supervision as an educational function is often hard pressed to show tangible results, the public may consider it an adjunct, a passing frill. It seems necessary, then, from time to time to examine some of its basic issues. One of these surely can be stated in the following questions: What constitutes desirable training for the supervisor? Henry Jones, a successful teacher of social studies, has been asked to become the supervisor of instruction in his high school. With a Master in social studies education, what should his immediate training, if any, be? His board of education and administrator suggested a summer course.

To a class of the writer's in high-school supervision this past summer came a group of Henry Joneses with a sprinkling of administrators. Of what should such a course be comprised? What should be its purposes? The instructor had few preconceived notions about either except for two rather general ones. He wanted to satisfy the needs of those present as much as possible. This would entail considerable teacher-student planning. He further wanted the class to have a pleasant professional experience.

An early attempt was made to create an atmosphere in which all class members could speak freely, call each other by their first names. Each person introduced himself with a few bits of data. Two class periods were devoted to exploring and defining some of the major problems with the hope that this might help the group attack them meaningfully. As the summer progressed, several approaches were employed by the class in their attack on these problems and issues. Most were evaluated two or more ways. Below are described some of the "methods" found by the class to be especially useful for their purposes.

Lester Vander Werf is Associate Professor of Education, Department of Education, University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire.

Group Work

Early in the course the class was divided into groups of five or six people—to help break down barriers and provide opportunity to battle a problem of their own choosing. It was significant that two groups selected the orientation of the new teacher into school life as their major concentration. While no attempt was made to dig deep into the area now recognized as "group process," evaluations of these meetings were made with interesting comments. It was noted that the behavior of two extremely "vocal" persons changed markedly, no doubt partly due to these evaluations.

Positive values of this activity as perceived by the participant were: "We learned practical problems and answers"—"Pleased to find problems shared by others"—"Accounts of experiences in what we will be expected to do"—"There is wealth in a group if it can be uncovered"—"Group decision means co-operation"—"Action can be assured through steps in attacking problems." Negatively these people saw monopoly at work, saw most work falling on few shoulders, emphatically sensed the need for group purposes, and watched missed opportunities for selecting the best chairmen.

Films

Class members selected the films from a long list available on campus. Films on individual adjustment were: *The Feeling of Hostility*, *The Feeling of Rejection*, and *The Feeling of Over-dependency*. Others showing teaching problems were: *Learning to Understand Children*, *The Broader Concept of Method* and *We Plan Together*. Evaluations expressed such items as "better understanding of teaching problems," "valuable for staff meetings," and "stimulating for discussion." Realization that situations cannot be exactly duplicated, that films must have well planned follow-ups were also expressed.

Anecdotes

The instructor initiated this variation on a theme with a few short accounts of supervisors facing situations on matters of policy, teaching, or other. The class evaluated the attitude shown, the action taken, and the solution offered. As the course progressed, several persons contributed such anecdotes for evaluation. Both on paper and informally, class members expressed considerable enthusiasm for the anecdote, thought them a helpful technique of pointing up supervisory issues, and brought home the human relations factors in supervision.

Reviews of New Books

General agreement among the students made each one responsible for reviewing concisely a new book of interest to educators. Most were

professional selections although no limits were placed on kind. One of the most provocative, in fact, based on the lively discussion of sex education which followed their report, was Moravia's *Two Adolescents*.

Mock Staff Meetings

Supervisors are called upon to organize small and large groups in professional activities. All too often status leaders have not provided the opportunities for potential leadership to emerge. Formal courses might well find use for making such revision, even under "artificial" conditions. With a helpful class climate, evaluations by peers could undoubtedly build a cushion against that day. While only a few volunteered to lead such meetings, many expressed the idea desirable. Perhaps the other activities precluded a wider need for it.

Class Library

This is not new. Teachers have had small class libraries for ages. Books, journals, pamphlets, and bibliographies are desirable tools to have around. They are particularly helpful for those who commute daily to the campus. This class liked it. We were particularly fortunate in having selected a fine set of basic materials. The author of the text used would have been flattered to hear the compliments paid him. Besides the text, *Evaluative Criteria* and *Two Lessons in Group Dynamics* were used.

Class Discussion

While an informal class procedure formed the "stock-in-trade" of the course, a special word is in order. The instructor attempted to develop the idea of continuous evaluation as an integral part of the learning process. Consequently, hardly a day went by that the class did not meet as a group even for a few minutes, to plan ahead, and to appraise progress or procedures and the experiences cited above. At the end there seemed to be a feeling of "knowing each other well" and of "regretting the close of the session."

FINAL EVALUATION

Since some kind of terminal appraisal was expected, the proposition was put squarely to the class. It was decided that whatever should be done should be time well spent, should be as individual as possible, and should be returned to the students before they left for questions and further appraisal if that seemed necessary. As a result, a week before the session closed, each submitted at least one problem with which he was concerned. All were read to the class. From the total, each would select two or more to solve in writing by the time of the next to the last meeting of the class.

The problems seemed to fall into the following categories in order of their importance as determined by number: problems of modernizing teacher attitudes, of student evaluation, of good beginnings, of teachers under inept supervisors, of teacher evaluation, and of professional ethics. Comments or questions were written by the instructor on all papers to stimulate further consideration of points raised.

THE FINAL DAY

Following comments on the finals, two questions were put to the class.

1. From what has been said, done, read, or thought here this summer, how do you see the function of supervision? Six conclusions were drawn.
 - a. Supervision is human relations. A faculty must be a team.
 - b. A supervisor must be a resource person; a helper, not an inspector.
 - c. Policies should not be handed down but developed among all.
 - d. Good supervision is like good teaching, providing an atmosphere for growth.
 - e. Evaluation is a shared experience by self and others.
 - f. Administration and supervision cannot be arbitrarily separated.
2. Knowing what you know now, what would you suggest for this course if we were just beginning? Aside from those items mentioned earlier, the following were suggested.
 - a. There should be social events early in the course.
 - b. At least one administrator should participate in each small group.
 - c. A bulletin board should be provided for committees, events, and schedules.

Finally, a report of this kind could hardly be justified if it were not that the students had a major share in the planning of the course. Beyond that, a persuasive but disputable principle of modern education is that those whose purposes are pursued are best able to evaluate the learning consistent with those purposes.

MARCH OF TIME FORUM FILMS

The March of Time's Forum Films are now distributed by the Text-Film division of McGraw-Hill Book Company. Increased costs have forced an increase in the price of the film series from \$55 to \$80 an issue, effective immediately. The series of documentaries which March of Time started in October, 1944, are extensively used by schools, government agencies, colleges, and libraries for visual education. A complete list of titles, running from the atom through zoos, and numbering 74 issues in all, are available through McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18, New York.

A Conception of Educational Leadership

GORDON N. MACKENZIE
STEPHEN M. COREY

FOR the past two years the secondary-school principals and building co-ordinators of Denver, Colorado, have been working with representatives of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation in a program of study and research intended to improve educational leadership. Although we have been interested primarily in acquiring better leadership skills, we have tried continuously to come to closer agreement upon the nature of leadership in order to communicate more satisfactorily with one another and to have a common reference point in our work and study. Consequently, considerable time has been devoted to a discussion of the factors involved in leadership and our concept of this function has been clarified appreciably as ideas were tested operationally.

For purposes of discussion and analysis, we have found it helpful to separate the leadership process, or what the leader does, from the characteristics of the leader himself and from his various roles. We have come to see that a status leader—principal, curriculum director, committee chairman, or superintendent—has many roles and responsibilities, only some of which involve leading people. We have in mind here activities like clerical work, creative writing, editorial work, management of personal time schedules, or administrative routines. This recognition that not all of the responsibilities of status leaders involve leadership and consequent followership has been helpful. We have also recognized that leaders may display a wide range of traits or characteristics, some of which relate to their roles involving leadership and others relating to their non-leadership roles.

The purpose of this article is to describe the conception of leadership that has proved to be most helpful to the Denver group. The pattern of the following argument proceeds from a definition of leadership to a consideration of a number of the implications of this definition.

Gordon N. Mackenzie and Stephen M. Corey are members of the staff of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

LEADERSHIP DEFINED

Leadership is a name for the activities of people who are perceived by an individual or a group as providing maximum help, actually or potentially, with the means which the individual or group desires to use to attain its goals.¹ One of the obvious characteristics of all human beings is their active seeking of goals or satisfactions. From birth until death, we are restlessly searching for something better. We may want to acquire greater skill in human relations or increased physical strength, or more cunning, or additional money to be used for a variety of purposes. In the course of this seeking we use various means in our efforts to achieve our goals.

In the school situation the goals of teachers may include securing better working conditions, improving pupil achievement, getting along more satisfactorily with the administration, or obtaining higher salaries. Some of these goals are personal in the sense that an individual is seeking satisfaction more or less on his own, but many of them are the goals of a group and are worked for co-operatively by a number of individuals. In each case, however, certain means are employed in order to get what we want. A curriculum co-ordinator, for example, may want to improve the human relations among the faculty group with which he works. He might see the following as possible means to the attainment of this goal: (a) serving of coffee before staff meetings; (b) planning a week-end conference on instructional problems at a resort in the mountains; (c) improving or discontinuing a rating procedure; and (d) minimizing the influence of status factors at group meetings. This co-ordinator would probably use one or more or possibly all of these means to achieve his goal of better human relations.

Usually the individual or the group does not have very complete command of the means that are needed to achieve its purposes. Consequently, someone who is seen as being qualified is turned to for help. In the illustration just cited of the co-ordinator seeking to improve human relations, he might turn to the principal for assistance in financing the coffee to be served before staff meetings. Similarly, he might turn to the chairman of the curriculum council for support and help in arranging the week-end conference on instructional problems. In the case of each of the means this co-ordinator thought of as being appropriate to the achievement of his goal, he would turn to some individual or group of individuals whom he considered to be in a position to pro-

¹ We received a great deal of help in the formulation of this definition from two seminar sessions at which we considered critically the article by Irving Knickerbocker, "Leadership: A Conception and Some Implications," which appeared in *The Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. IV, 1948, pp. 23-40.

vide help. Whoever is thus perceived to have the understandings or skills or material means that are thought to be required for goal achievement is turned to for leadership. Paraphrasing this statement somewhat, if one or more persons perceive a person as helping them or being able to help them achieve their purposes, this person becomes, for the individual or group involved, a leader. This gets us back to our definition: a leader is a person perceived by an individual or a group as being able to control or provide the means which they desire to use in achieving their goals. The activities engaged in by this leader define the "leadership" function.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS VARY WITH THE SITUATION IN WHICH LEADERSHIP IS EXERCISED

Any situation in which a leader functions is complicated. This is due to the great variability and complex inter-relationships among at least these four components of any situation in which work is being done: (a) the goals the individuals or groups are seeking; (b) the means which the individual or the group desires to use in the attainment of these goals; (c) the goals, understandings, and skills of the potential leaders; and (d) the general psychological climate within which individuals and groups do their work.

Because of the variability of these factors and the subtle inter-relationships among them, the way leaders behave as they try to help individuals or groups achieve their purposes will vary greatly from one situation to another. The means to be used in achieving goals as well as the activities engaged in by the leaders must, of course, be adapted to the realities of a specific situation as they are perceived by the people involved. The following observations are intended to make somewhat more explicit this situational aspect of leadership behavior:

1. The person perceived by an individual or a group as able to provide help for the achievement of one goal may be unable to help the same individuals or groups reach another goal. For example, the man or woman who might provide maximum help to a group when its purpose is to reach consensus may not be able to help that group at all when its purpose is to plan for a community sing.

This relative specificity of leadership qualifications to the specific goals or purposes an individual or group is trying to achieve deserves considerable emphasis. Most of us are disposed to put a halo around the head of the person who is able to provide us with help in achieving certain major goals and to assume that this individual can provide effective leadership in general. We tend to over-generalize the range of leadership as it can be provided by one individual. An antidote to this tendency is for the individual or group to spend considerable time in consideration both of the specific goals to be sought and of the means to be employed to achieve these goals. These two

variables should guide whatever role is contemplated for an individual who actually is in a position to provide maximum help in the achievement of a specific purpose through the employment of specific means.

2. The person who may be perceived by one individual or one group as being able to help achieve a certain goal may not be perceived by another individual or group as useful in the attainment of the same goal.

For example, one individual might be considered by one group of teachers as being extremely able to help them arrive at consensus in connection with a proposed activity. The same person, however, might be thought by parents to be inept at helping them arrive at consensus. It might be that this individual's technical language would be of assistance when he worked with teachers, but would actually hinder his effectiveness with parents.

3. The individual thought to be most helpful in respect to control of one means toward a given goal might not be perceived as providing help in respect to another means toward the same goal. Thus, if the application of force or pressure is believed to be the best means to a goal such as securing a salary increase, one individual might be identified as a leader. If, on the other hand, conciliation or persuasion is believed to be the most appropriate means to the salary increase, a different individual might be perceived as leader.

4. The person who is perceived by an individual or a group as being able to help them at one time may not always be so regarded. This may be due to changes in the goals of the individual or the group, or to changes in the means seen as contributing to these goals, or to changes in the leader himself, or to changes in the general psychological climate which might be greatly affected by social or economic conditions, or to the appearance of another individual who is perceived to be potentially better able to provide help than the current leader.

Let us return to a further consideration of these four factors which must be considered in analyzing any situation in which leadership is sought or exercised:

1. The nature of the goals the individual or groups are seeking,
2. The means which the individual or group desires to use in the achievement of their goals,
3. The goals, motivations, understandings, and skills of the potential and actual leaders, and
4. The climate within which the leaders and those who are led operate.

The way in which these factors are inter-related determines the manner in which leaders will be identified as well as the manner in which leadership will be exercised. These relationships can be made somewhat clearer through a few examples. Let us assume that a group of teachers wants higher salaries. Several means may be perceived by this group as giving greatest promise of achieving this goal. These means might be: (a) using force or threats to strike; (b) bargaining which would involve a promise to do certain things if higher salaries are granted; and (c) working for mutual understanding and co-operation by involving the public and the administration in a consideration of the

bearing of better salaries upon the quality of the experiences provided boys and girls in school.

It is conceivable that a group of teachers might include sub-groups each of which perceives one of these means as being most promising. Those in sub-group "A" might identify a person whom they believed would be able to help them gain higher salaries by force or threats. Those in sub-group "B" might identify another person whom they perceived as being able to help them attain higher salaries through bargaining. Those in sub-group "C" might identify still another leader whom they believed could help them secure higher salaries by creating a widespread and mutual understanding of the relationship between the reimbursement of teachers and the quality of the curriculum. Thus, if each of these sub-groups were devoted to a particular means to achieve the common goal, each might identify a different kind of leader. Despite agreement on the goal, the employment of different means to achieve it would result in controversy and friction.

This kind of situation frequently obtains and raises the question as to what should be done when various sub-groups of a total population are committed to different and conflicting means for the achievement of a common purpose. It frequently happens that individuals and groups have a limited perception of the relative merits of a variety of means that might be employed to help them attain their purposes. This limitation, of course, has an important bearing upon the individuals who are seen as being apt to provide most help as leaders. Frequently individuals or groups change their leaders as new or alternative means become visible, or, because of previous experience, have been proved to be more appropriate.

The influence of the general psychological climate upon the selection of means and of leaders can be illustrated in the following instance. Assume again that a faculty group wishes to receive higher salaries and is considering the three means which involve resort to force, to bargaining, and to working for mutual understandings. Assume furthermore that the community is one in which there has been a clear indication that public sentiment is strong against any group resorting to force or threats in order to achieve increases in salaries. Assuming that the faculty group is aware of such public sentiment, this factor would be weighed as the use of force or threat is considered. Such weighing would, in all likelihood, cause the group to exclude this "force-threat" means and concentrate upon either bargaining or attempts to reach mutual understanding or some combination of these two.

One special case which has relevance to educational leadership in public schools involves the status leader who is selected by some-

one other than the group he is supposed to lead. A superintendent of schools, for example, is chosen by a board of education to provide leadership not only for them, but for the faculty, the students, and the public as well. Naming a person as a leader, however, does not necessarily mean that he will be able to exercise the leadership function. Unless this superintendent is perceived by one or more of the groups as being able to provide them with help in respect to the means these groups see as being necessary to achieve their purposes, he will not function as a leader. In other words, leadership is not a person or a position. It is, as we have said, the name used for the activities of a person who is perceived by an individual or a group as being able to provide help with the means needed to achieve the goals of the individual or the group.

Defining leadership in this way and calling attention to some of the situational variables that have a bearing upon the identification, selection, and exercise of leadership seems to us to provide a rather satisfactory basis for developing a helpful theory of leadership. Our argument does not, however, cast much light upon leadership quality. It might be inferred that the sole test of the quality of leadership is the extent to which the individual or the group believes it is getting help in the achievement of its goals. We do not mean to imply that this criterion be the only one used to determine leadership quality. Certainly some goals that are sought by individuals or groups are better than other goals. And, too, some means that might be employed to achieve these goals may be much better or much worse than other means. This article does not purport to develop criteria that might help answer questions about the ethical quality of leadership practices.

NATIONAL STUDENT COUNCIL CONFERENCE CHANGE OF DATE

The date of the Sixteenth Annual National Conference of Student Councils which was originally scheduled for June 16-19, 1952, has been changed to begin Wednesday, June 18 and end Saturday, June 21, 1952. The Conference will be held in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, of which Lloyd S. Michael is principal.

Be Sure to Note This Change of Date on Your Calendar.

The Junior High School

-Past and Present

LESTER BEALS

THE junior high school came on to the stage of American education in the early part of the present century, in a rather auspicious manner. Great hopes were held for it as an organization that would fulfill a great need in education, in terms of bridging the gap between the elementary and secondary school and in providing the type of a program that would more adequately meet the needs of boys and girls in early adolescence. Its inception was a part of that period in educational history when a more progressive philosophy was emerging, based on psychological experimentation and philosophical consideration of the basic needs of boys and girls and of society. Education had started to grow up at this time and the junior high school was a part of the newer concept.

In the past few years many educators have been looking back on this development and questioned if the junior high has realized the hopes held for it. Has it helped to bridge this important gap in our educational program and has it met the real needs of the early adolescent years? Or has it become, as the name implies, just a "junior" high school, helping to perpetuate many of the weaknesses of the senior high school? Many believe that the latter thing has happened. There is no doubt that under wise and progressive leadership, some junior high schools have approximated the goals which have been set for them. But there is a strong feeling that they have missed their mark in many respects.

In view of this rather widespread dissatisfaction, some school systems have experimented with other types of organization in an attempt to make better provision for the training of these youth. Such organizational plans as the 6-6, the 6-2-4, the 7-5, and the 6-4-4 are

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being employed, while many systems, still not convinced, retain the traditional 8-4 plan. With regard to the merits of the junior high, there is some thought, that in terms of adolescent development, some other grade level than the seventh is the more logical place to make the break between the elementary and secondary program.

It would appear that there is a real need at this time for a serious consideration and evaluation of the place of the junior high school in our educational organization. The trend to move away from the 8-4 plan still continues as educators agree that a different type of program needs to be provided for the boys and girls in early adolescence. In this evolution it is well to consider the premises on which the junior high was established, some of the trends it has followed, and to discuss the present and future emphases.

The secondary and elementary schools in America developed with little consideration of each other. It was not until the latter part of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth, that educators started to see the need for a better integrated program. The elementary school had developed as an eight-year program and the high school as a four-year institution, with little supporting evidence as to this type of organization and the number of years they represented.

The pressing social problems at the turn of the century, dramatized by the great number of delinquents and the increased social waste, brought about by the rapidly developing machine age, led to a more serious consideration of the need for a vital, well organized educational program. This was stimulated by the fact that increasing numbers of boys and girls were attending high school, although comparatively few were staying long enough to graduate. These and other factors led to various plans for reorganizing the educational units and for a different emphasis in education, based on modern psychological and philosophical concepts.

As a result of this concern, various professional committees were appointed to study educational philosophy, practice, and organization. Included in these committees were such well known ones as the Committee of Ten of the National Council of Education; the Committee of Fifteen of the Department of Superintendence; the Committee on the Economy of Time of the National Council, and the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the N.E.A. All of these committees made important contributions to the development of the junior high.

In addition to the work of the various committees, individual school systems, through their experimentations, gave impetus to the movement. As early as 1896, Richmond, Indiana, had a two-year unit,

including the seventh and eighth grades, housed in a separate building. Lawrence, Kansas, and New York City were among the first to introduce the intermediate school. The school year 1909-10 is considered to mark the beginning of the junior high school. In that year, two city systems, Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio, introduced the 6-3-3 organization. Others studied these programs and more junior highs followed rapidly. It is important to note, though, that many junior highs were established as a result of the crowding of the high schools rather than by reason of a changing concept of school philosophy and organization. The years 1920-30 marked the greatest increase in the number of systems adopting the 6-3-3 plan.

FUNCTIONS

A study of the functions of the early junior high schools indicates a number of important considerations. It was believed that such an organization would help to meet the individual differences of pupils by enabling them to follow the lines of their interests and abilities. Pre-vocational training and exploration could be provided that would result in wise choice of later school work and occupations. A program could be provided, emphasizing socialized experiences and activities, that would better meet the needs of early adolescence, and result in the development of good citizenship and personal traits. It would help to round out the training beyond the elementary school for those who must leave school early, and would encourage others to remain longer than the compulsory school age. A better use could be made of time spent in preparing for college by starting college preparatory subjects sooner. Finally, it was believed that the gap between elementary and secondary school could be bridged more effectively by the junior high school.

As the junior high school developed, both in philosophy and practice, there have been certain important changes in these functions. Originally, much emphasis was given to the importance of the economy of time that would result from an extension of the secondary school. The colleges were interested in seeing that such subjects as mathematics and foreign languages were started at a lower level in order to save time in the training of students in the secondary school and in college. It was thought by some that it might be possible to eliminate one of two years from the high school as a result of this change. Since 1910, however, economy of time has assumed little importance because of the expanded need of terminal training and the lengthened period of compulsory school attendance. There has also been reduced emphasis on the retention of pupils because of the longer period of

school attendance required, and less emphasis on vocational exploration and guidance. Receiving increased emphasis has been a broad concept of the place of guidance and both individual and social integration. The other functions are still considered important.

In a rather recent study by Gruhn and Douglass, they prepared a list of functions relating to the junior high school, as indicated by the experience of leaders in the field and by different studies, and submitted them to a selected group of specialists for evaluation. The important functions of the junior high as rated by these specialists are as follows: to provide opportunities for the development of continually widening range of cultural, social, civic, and recreational interests; to provide experiences leading to better personal adjustment; to make provision for differentiated educational facilities to meet varying needs; to systematize and integrate educational outcomes; to provide opportunity for social growth and social participation; to provide for the exploration of special interests and capacities as a basis for educational and vocational guidance; to provide a gradual transition from elementary to secondary school, and to prepare pupils to participate as effectively as possible in all present and future learning situations. In summarizing their study, Gruhn and Douglass established six basic functions of the junior high school program. These are integration, exploration, guidance, differentiation, socialization, and articulation.

CURRICULUM TRENDS

In considering the trends in curriculum organization there are several distinct trends that have been evident. It would appear that all of these are desirable in view of the philosophy and function of the junior high school. The only thing lacking is that in too many schools they still remain desirable theories and not actual practice. The same criticism may be leveled at the trends in classroom practice and guidance and personnel practices, which will be discussed shortly. The curriculum trends that have been noted include such things as progression toward a correlation between subjects, an integration of courses, pupil participation in curriculum planning, the organization of courses into large units, the correlation with real life activities, preparation for intelligent consumership and effective home life, more adequate preparation for effective citizenship, the postponement of college preparatory and vocational studies, and provision for a differentiated curriculum and flexibility within the curriculum.

Insofar as classroom practice is concerned, there has been a trend in the direction of such things as larger teaching units, provision for

supervised study as a part of the classroom procedure, an attempt to relate the study of skills to real life problems, an emphasis on the development of pupil initiative and responsibility, an emphasis on personality development and integration, provision for more group work and activities, increased opportunity for the pupils to pursue individual interests and talents as a part of the regular curricular program, an emphasis on co-operative group achievement and less attention to individual attainment, a greater stress on the diagnosing of learning problems, with remedial follow-up, increased opportunity for pupil expression, increased emphasis on pupil evaluation based on the realization of worthwhile educational goals, more use of audio-visual and reference material and less of textbooks, increased opportunity for independent thinking, more emphasis on the use of community resources, and, finally, a newer concept of the place of the teacher as a friend and counselor rather than a disciplinarian. In many respects these trends likewise apply to the other levels of education, as teachers have learned more about human dynamics and motivation. Again it must be admitted that in too many schools the classroom procedure looks much like that of the parent's school.

It has been stated that one of the most important functions to be performed in the junior high school is that of guidance. Certainly at no other age is it more important to apply good guidance practices and to provide specialized personnel services. There have been certain trends in guidance and counseling that should be noted as have been those trends in curriculum and administration. Such things are indicated as more emphasis on a broad guidance program and less on vocational; the utilization of the entire staff in the program; the inclusion of more specialists such as remedial teachers, counselors, psychologists, visiting teachers, nurses, and the like; a broader testing program to include diagnostic and achievement tests to serve as a basis for remedial work; more attention to remedial work in fundamental skills of reading, spelling, arithmetic, etc.; greater attention in diagnosing personality problems and aiding individuals in understanding themselves; better orientation programs for new students coming in or for those going to the senior high school; better programs to help boys and girls to develop an adequate philosophy of life; and an attempt to work more closely with the home, church, and other community agencies in helping children in the various phases of their development.

REORGANIZATION FOR LIFE ADJUSTMENT

In considering the program of the junior high school today it is evident that some fundamental changes need to take place. From

recent studies it would appear that educators in the field need to re-define the philosophy of the junior high school, its functions and goals, and then to reorganize the program on this new basis. Statements made in the Life Adjustment program, sponsored by the United States Office of Education, indicate that secondary education is in need of drastic reorganization on the basis of present day needs of adolescent youth. The functions stated by Gruhn and Douglass might serve as a point of departure for the reorganization of the junior high school.

It is stated in *Education for All American Youth* that the educational needs of boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 15 are, on the whole, common to all. Hence, the curriculum for these three years should be the same for all pupils in its broad outlines, with ample opportunity within each class for the teacher to take into account the differences among individuals. The writers further state that: "During the early years of adolescence, the pupil continues to grow in knowledge and understanding of the world in which he lives; in ability to think clearly and to express himself intelligently in speech and writing; in his mastery of scientific facts and mathematical processes; and in his capacity to assume responsibilities, to direct his own affairs, and to work and live co-operatively with other people. At the same time, he is introduced to a wide range of experiences in intellectual, occupational, and recreational fields, so that he may have a broad base for the choice of the interests which later he will follow more extensively. He is helped to understand the processes of physiological and emotional maturing, characteristic of these years, and to develop habits of healthful living. He gains greater insight into his own abilities and potentialities."¹

It would seem that each school should begin with a study of the needs of the boys and girls, which it serves, and then develop an over-all philosophy from this. It is helpful, of course, to know what other schools are doing, but the philosophy of each school must grow out of a consideration of the needs of that particular community. As a part of this consideration, teachers and administrators need to have a broad and deep understanding of the basic factors in child development and how such development can be aided. Many teachers are not making good use of the "know how" that has been made available through psychological experimentation. Surely each school should have a definite up-to-date philosophy with appropriate goals and aims. In too many schools it would appear that they are following the old by-line of, "we don't know where we are going but we're on our way."

¹*Education for All American Youth*. Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1944. pp. 35-36.

Out of this serious consideration of the purposes of the junior high school it appears that there should be certain definite changes taking place. These can well be discussed in terms of the functions expressed previously—that of integration, exploration, guidance, differentiation, socialization, and articulation.

INTEGRATION

First, with regard to integration, it is important that the junior high school program have a coherency about it. This would imply common learning experiences in which there is an attempt to relate these subjects which are relatable into a core program with no concern for subject-matter lines. Junior-high students are not mature enough to see such relationships as expressed by a wide range of individual subjects. Such subjects as social studies, language arts, spelling, literature, art, music, and some science concepts can be integrated into meaningful experiences and fundamental learning skills. This does not mean a "hodge-podge" of subjects taught by one teacher, but purposeful experiences, well-planned, and leading in the direction of certain goals in terms of fundamental learnings. It is especially important in the junior high that a student be with one teacher or under the direction of one teacher for nearly half of the school day. This "core" teacher would have available certain specialists such as those in art and music who would help plan and carry out parts of the program. Experimental evidence shows that in such a program, students become slightly more skilled in the fundamental tools, do just as well in college curricula, and on the whole are much better adjusted personally and socially. In such an organization, the core would also be the center of guidance activities and assume the role of the homeroom. Certain specialized subjects such as mathematics, shop, homemaking, typewriting, business training, some art and music, and perhaps science on the ninth grade level, could be taught outside this common core. But even with these subjects there should be certain relationships with the total program and, at times, some integrated activities. In other words, all of the program should have a wholeness about it. With such an organization, many more activities are possible in the way of field trips, long term individual and group projects, and the use of community sources. Pupils coming from the elementary school, in which they are under the direction of one teacher all day, feel a greater security that comes from being with a harmonious group over a long period of time. This whole matter of group morale and dynamics is a very important thing in the development of personality and character.

EXPLORATION

Secondly, we need to expand our conception of the exploratory function to think of wide experiences, not just in the vocational area, but also in matters that will lead to good citizenship, the development of character, wise use of leisure time, and the stimulation of worthwhile intellectual activities. In working toward this goal it can be readily seen how much better it can be achieved through a core or similar plan of organization. It would appear that the junior high has done a fairly good job in providing vocational orientation through exploratory courses, units and courses in occupations, and by means of testing and other devices. There is evidence, though, that we need to do much more in developing group and individual projects that will lead to a better choice of leisure time, citizenship, and intellectual activities. It is important to have the right job, but in the world we live, and especially in a democracy, it is most important that these other areas be explored. Through the social studies emphasis, many experiences in citizenship need to be provided, which might include intensive study of local government, visits to local units, discussions with civic leaders, real experiences in self-government applied to small groups as well as to the whole school. With regard to intellectual activities each student should be encouraged to explore his interest in the arts, music, literature, science, *etc.* Such activities naturally overlap into those of vocational and leisure time. Leisure time activities can be stressed by the activity program through physical education, art, music, *etc.*

GUIDANCE

A third function, that of guidance, has received much attention in recent years. Most junior high school people have come to the agreement that a broad concept of guidance should be applied at this level. That is, the old idea of the emphasis being vocational is no longer adequate. The aim of the guidance program should be to help boys and girls to become better adjusted in all areas in order that they may attain personal happiness and participate at a maximum socially. This means that we need to become acquainted intimately with the pupils, in order to understand and be able to help them. This implies the use of cumulative records, a certain amount of tests, and other devices. It means a close relationship with the home and other community agencies. It should involve a participation on the part of the entire staff as well as the use of specialists such as counselors, nurses, psychologists, and remedial experts. Pupils should be aided in every possible way in their educational, vocational, and personal planning. This would mean some group guidance techniques through

classes in orientation and careers, as well as extensive individual counseling. The social hygiene program should be emphasized at this level. Some work experiences need to be provided, which will help to relate the school program to actual working problems.

DIFFERENTIATION

Another function is that of differentiation, which is an emphasis on making the program flexible in terms of individual needs. It would seem that there should be a limited amount of grouping to accommodate, particularly, the retarded and the gifted child. Special grouping in reading and arithmetic have been successful in some schools. To a certain extent the provision of a few electives, particularly at the ninth grade level, answers that need. This would include such subjects as typing, business training, algebra, arts, crafts, and music. It is important in the junior high for us to do a great deal in the way of remedial work. It should be a time of "catching up" for some. It is obvious that in a good classroom a teacher will make all kinds of provisions for individual differences. Even as we find physical differences, such as the six-foot and the five-foot boy in the same grade in junior high, we also find mental and emotional differences.

SOCIALIZATION

The need for socializing activities and experiences has long been one of the agreed upon functions of the junior high school. It has been recognized that gregariousness is one of the strongest drives at this age and that this matter of social acceptance is of prime importance. It would appear that here a good job has been done in providing varied socializing experiences within and between sexes. But in planning activities to meet the social needs of boys and girls, the question might be asked as to whether we have not keyed our programs too much to the more superficial manifestations and have failed to challenge the deeper social drives. Boys and girls at this age are deeply idealistic. They have a deep feeling of sympathy for the needs of others, sometimes so deep that it does not seem apparent. These deep social drives need to be challenged. Social experiences should include many projects in the nature of getting acquainted with the problems of other races, other classes, other nations, and then through co-operative planning to do something about these problems. Such projects as a study of city parks and their usefulness followed through with active steps to improve them, is an example. Such activities help to bring out the best in the child's social nature. Of course there needs to be lots of typical, adolescent social activities, in which every one has a part in the planning and participation.

ARTICULATION

Lastly, there is a need for the recognition of the function of articulation. One of the basic purposes of the junior high school since its conception has been to bridge the gap between the elementary and secondary school. This means that it should have some of the characteristics of both, with a gradual transition from one to the other. The seventh grade should be very similar to the elementary school, and the ninth should have more of the characteristics of the senior high school. This implies that in planning the program some of the elementary and some of the senior high people should participate. It indicates that probably some of the teachers in junior high should occasionally come from the elementary school as well as the high school. It points to a careful orientation program at the beginning of the seventh grade and end of sixth, then again at the end of the ninth and the beginning of the tenth. It means that complete records should be transferred from one level to the next, and perhaps some type of cumulative record that could be used from the first to the twelfth grade. We have agreed that a continuous twelve-year program is the best thing. We need to make that ideal practicable.

PROGRESS WITH CHANGE

In a few junior high schools in the nation very definite progress is being made in carrying out these functions, in terms of a philosophy that aims at meeting the needs of boys and girls and of society. In others, some of these functions are being carried out with a fair degree of success. The large majority, however, are lagging behind, operating pretty much in the same way that they did at their beginning. As has been emphasized in the Life Adjustment program, changes must come in the secondary schools. These changes need to come about as a result of the mature consideration of individual and social needs, based on all the scientific evidence that is available. In this high speed, streamlined, scientific world we can not be satisfied with an old-model educational program. We are so self-conscious when we drive that old "jalopy" that is a few years old. We even say that it is unsafe. Should we not be more self-conscious about driving an outdated educational model? Is it really safe to do so?

Desirable changes will mean a new vision, a willingness to experiment, and a greater commitment in terms of the fundamental needs of the adolescents. It will be the forward-looking teachers and administrators who will bring about the new look, with a vision of a better man in a better world, working to help boys and girls develop the moral and spiritual qualities needed for real happiness and a lasting civilization.

Twelve Months of School

ROLAND C. FAUNCE

THE conventional nine-months school year originated in a rural economy in which youth could only be spared from farm work during certain months of the year. In an earlier period, and even today in some parts of the country youth have been kept out of school to help on the farms considerably more than three months annually. With the rapid urbanization of our country, educators are becoming increasingly interested in the possibilities of a year-around educational program. This interest has been further intensified by the recent trend toward the extension of education at both the lower and upper ends of the school ladder. If it is true that more, not less, education is required of all children and youth who grow up in today's world, it is natural for people to ask why expensive school plants and trained personnel are idled for twenty-five per cent of each year.

Experiments in the direction of the twelve-months school program have been undertaken for many years. The early programs were usually pointed toward academic acceleration. One such experiment lasted from 1912 to 1931 in the Newark, New Jersey, schools. Similar types of "summer schools" are still offered in most of our large cities. They are usually staffed and administered as a separate part of the school program and geared to the acceleration goal.

In recent years, a number of quite different programs have been undertaken in Rochester, Minnesota; in Glencoe, Illinois; in Centerline, Michigan; in Decatur, Illinois; and in Beaumont, Texas. These programs, and others similar to them, have not simply offered a separate summer school for academic acceleration, but have placed the regular staff on a twelve-months contract and offered a rounded program of education, recreation, and community service during the summer months.

ADVANTAGES OF A TWELVE-MONTHS PROGRAM

A number of reasons have been advanced by the advocates of the twelve-months school program. Some of these are as follows:

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1. It has increased teachers' salaries, thus enabling them to live more adequately and hence become more effective teachers. The twelve months program has usually, although not always, been linked to a pay increase plan. Even in those schools where funds are not yet available for such a general increase, it is agreed that the twelve-months plan is a step in that direction.

2. The plan has distributed teachers' income more equitably throughout the calendar year, thus eliminating the familiar anxiety of facing the summer without an income. It is true that such year-round distribution can be achieved without a twelve-months school program, but the connecting of service with remuneration makes the plan more acceptable both to teachers and to the community.

3. The plan permits teachers and administrators to take graduate courses in universities during the summer, without the usual financial worry attendant upon such study. Universities are often not available to teachers during the school year.

4. The twelve-months school contract permits an active in-service education program. The Glencoe program rests its case chiefly upon this value. The planning of workshops, teachers' meetings, and institutes during the regular school year must inevitably involve certain problems. Teachers are tired and need a change of scene at the end of the school day. Released time by dismissing pupils has its limitations. The summer months offer an excellent opportunity for faculty committee work, curriculum planning, evaluation, inventory and development of instructional materials, and other activities which increase the competency of teachers and enrich the program.

5. The trends toward summer recreation and school camping programs, the school farm or garden, and extended tours to places of educational interest have been accelerated by the twelve-months school year in the communities which have tried that program. Both the local day camp and the extended outdoor education programs in sites remote from the school grounds have developed rapidly in recent years. They constitute an increasing demand upon the schools for trained personnel during the summer months. The same thing is true of the playground and pool activities which thousands of communities now carry on during the summer.

6. The earlier goal of providing remedial help for retarded pupils and classes for those who have a special need for an accelerated instructional program is still a valid one. It is commonly regarded today as only one of several functions which the summer program may serve.

7. The curriculum can be considerably enriched during the summer. Activities which we all agree are educative but which the "tyr-

ranny of the schedule" seems to prohibit during the school year can be offered during the summer. Among these activities are art, vocal and instrumental music, crafts such as metal work and weaving, creative writing, radio, movie appreciation, dramatics, use of business machines, and many others.

8. In the same manner, the summer program can be flexibly geared for experimentation with curricular innovations which need some exploration and trial before they are introduced regularly into the curriculum. With more time at the disposal of teachers and pupils, whole days can be devoted to activities on the growing fringe of education. Out of such experiments can come enrichment of the total curriculum. The outdoor education movement began in this manner. The school excursion, the community survey, plays and other creative activities, home and family life education, safety education, character education—these and many other similar areas can be tested and evaluated during the relatively flexible summer program.

9. The advocates of the twelve-months school point out that not only the staff, but also school plants can be more fully utilized by a year-around program.

10. The participation of students and of teachers in community life is enhanced by the twelve-months school year. Such participation by pupils often involves conflicts with the regular school schedule, which can be avoided in the summer months. When pupils make surveys of community needs, or perform actual services for the community, time and a flexible schedule are needed. The summer offers this opportunity. In addition, it enables teachers to become more completely identified with the community in which they teach than is the case when they leave it completely for three months out of every year.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

If all of these advantages are offered by the twelve-months school, why has it not been more generally adopted? A recent survey¹ of the opinions of school administrators on this matter of the twelve-months school year sheds some light on the problems which it involves. The problems most frequently mentioned are as follows:

1. The cost of the twelve-months school year is greater. In one school the extra three months of the summer program added thirty per cent to the total budget.

2. The staffing of a summer program constitutes a complex problem because of the uncertainty and diversity of teachers' summer plans.

¹Mary Tomancik, "All-Year Schools," *The Nation's Schools*. June, 1951, 47:6 pp. 69-71.

3. There is still need for the summer labor of youth on farms and in resort areas. They need a summer job in order to help their families and themselves financially.

4. Family travel and vacation plans offer a competing factor during the summers.

5. Teachers often oppose the plan because they welcome the relief from school routines which the summer lay-off provides. A year-around plan may interfere with their plans for travel, vacation, or employment in some other kind of a job.

THE FUTURE

In spite of these, and other problems, more and more school systems seem to be moving in the direction of extending the school program into the summer months. In some communities this experimentation is in the direction of extending and enriching the regular "summer school" offerings. In others, the summer recreation program is being taken under the wing of the schools and extended to serve adults as well as youth. In still others, a limited beginning has been made by placing teachers on regular salary for a summer workshop or extended pre-school conference in August.

It is evident that the problems mentioned by school administrators are not insoluble. Most of the plans make allowance for vacation plans by setting aside one summer month for the purpose, but with the further advantage of full salary. The need for labor can often be met by a part-time summer program. None of the schools has as yet required attendance in the summer, but several of them report that half to three-fourths of their pupils participate in the summer program in one way or another. The experience of these pioneer programs makes clear that there are at least three principles which are basic in the development of the twelve-months school year.

The first of these principles is that the program must be developed indigenously in each community and adapted closely to the local needs. A plan which has succeeded elsewhere may not succeed here.

The second principle is that the local plan must evolve from the planning of all persons involved: administrators, teachers, pupils, and community, if it is to succeed. Any one of these four groups can defeat an excellently conceived plan if it does not genuinely give its support. The only sure way to get genuine support is to provide genuine participation in the planning, execution, and evaluation of the plan.

Finally, it appears that the additional cost of the twelve-months plan can be justified only on the basis that it will provide a better education for boys and girls. All other considerations must be held

secondary to the goals of better teaching and better learning. If the twelve-months school can be shown to be worth the extra cost which it entails in terms of the enrichment of instruction and the upgrading of teaching, it will eventually become generally adopted. It is fortunate that some school systems have paved the way to this important discovery.

NEWS NOTES

OUR PUBLIC LANDS.—The Bureau of Land Management of the U. S. Department of the Interior is now issuing its own periodical, *Our Public Lands*, a quarterly magazine. The first issue appeared in April 1951, the fourth is scheduled for January 1952. The magazine is semitechnical in nature, directed toward a better exchange of information on problems affecting our public lands. In the states the Bureau manages more than 180 million acres of public lands, chiefly in the West, principally rangelands but including more than 30 million acres of forest and woodland. In Alaska it manages more than 290 million acres, including 125 million acres of timberlands. In addition BLM is responsible for oil, gas, and mineral, leasing a total of 750 million acres of public lands, and for cadastral surveying and land-record keeping on all of the original public domain, exceeding a billion acres. While the magazine is small in size, its value can be very great in promoting more efficient management, use, and conservation of the very "active acres" under the jurisdiction of the Bureau. A limited number of copies has been authorized for free distribution to land users served by BLM, libraries, graduate students, and press, magazine, and radio representatives. School libraries interested in the magazine may have their name placed on a free mailing list. Send your request to *Our Public Lands*, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, Washington 25, D. C.

ENGLAND'S COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS.—The London County Council has approved by majorities of nine the erection of two of its largest comprehensive schools. The Strand School for 2,210 boys at Tulse Hill is estimated to cost £651,562 and the Putney Park Lane School for 2,210 boys and girls is expected to cost £612,000. The higher cost of the Strand School is due to the fact that the main teaching block will be some nine storeys high in order to economize space on the eight-and-a-half acre site. It is planned as four connected "teaching towers," each with a lift capable of taking thirty pupils at a time and with a staircase. It will replace the existing Strand Grammar School and will absorb presumably the junior department of the Brixton School of Building as well as two modern schools. The Putney Park Lane School is planned as a four-storeyed building on a nine-acre site north of Putney Heath. A good deal of thought has been devoted by the Council's architects to the planning of these schools. Provisional approval has no doubt been obtained from the Ministry to exceed the present cost limit of £240 a place. The majority party in the Council are determined to prove that their faith in this form of education is not misplaced and that it will establish itself in public esteem. Buildings of this sort do not allow of second thoughts.—*The Journal of Education*.

A Study of Massachusetts High School Principals

A. RUSSELL MACK

THIS study was made from the biennial surveys for 1950-1951, which are filled out by principals for the Massachusetts State Department of Education. All 256 high schools in the state are included in the study but data from 7 principals were not complete, thus accounting for some totals being less than 256. In the statistics following, the principals are classified into four groups. Group I (98 principals) includes those principals in high schools with pupil enrollments of 500 and over; Group II (70 principals) includes those principals in high schools with pupil enrollments of 200 to 499; Group III (52 principals) includes those principals in high schools with pupil enrollments of 100 to 199; and Group IV (36 principals) includes those principals in high schools with pupil enrollments under 100. As stated before, this study involves the principals who were in charge of the Massachusetts high schools during the school year 1950-1951. Table I shows the number of years of college training and the degree held by them. Table II shows the number of years experience they had in all schools, the number of years experience they had in their present position, and the number of

TABLE I. COLLEGE PREPARATION OF MASSACHUSETTS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, 1950-1951

| Group | Years of College Preparation | | | | Degrees Held | | |
|-------|------------------------------|---------|--------------------------------------|--|--------------|--------|-----------|
| | Median | Average | No. Attended Teachers Colleges | No. Having Done Graduate Work | Bachelor | Master | Doctorate |
| I | 4 | 3.9 | 20 | 76 | 21 | 66 | 8 |
| II | 4 | 4.0 | 11 | 62 | 15 | 53 | 1 |
| III | 4 | 4.0 | 2 | 43 | 19 | 30 | 0 |
| IV | 4 | 3.6 | 6 | 34 | 13 | 23 | 0 |
| All | 4 | 4.0 | 39 | 215 | 68 | 172 | 9 |

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TABLE II. EXPERIENCE OF MASSACHUSETTS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS UP TO THE SCHOOL YEAR, 1950-1951

| Group | Total Years Experience | | | | Experience in Present School System | | | | Teaching Principal | | | | | | |
|-------|------------------------|--------|---------|--|-------------------------------------|--------|---------|--|--------------------|-------|------|------|---------|--------------|-----------|
| | | | | | | | | | Subject Field | | | | | | |
| | Range | Median | Average | | Range | Median | Average | | No. | Math. | Com. | Eng. | Science | Soc. Studies | Languages |
| I | 7-46 | 31.0 | 30.7 | | 0-40 | 20.0 | 18.9 | | 4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| II | 1-43 | 22.0 | 22.1 | | 0-33 | 19.0 | 16.5 | | 24 | 12 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| III | 4-43 | 19.5 | 20.3 | | 0-31 | 10.5 | 12.6 | | 39 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 5 | 0 |
| IV | 2-44 | 15.0 | 16.1 | | 0-36 | 4.5 | 7.8 | | 33 | 16 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 3 |
| All | 1-46 | 24.5 | 24.4 | | 0-40 | 17.0 | 15.7 | | 100 | 46 | 3 | 6 | 17 | 12 | 3 |

principals who carried a teaching load in addition to their administrative duties together with a listing of the subject fields in which they were teaching. Table III shows the salaries and the average age of the

TABLE III. SALARIES AND AVERAGE AGES OF MASSACHUSETTS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, 1950-1951

| Group | Range | Median | Average | Average Age |
|-------|-----------------|----------|----------|-------------|
| I | \$4,000-\$8,400 | \$5,773 | \$5,813 | 53 |
| II | 3,490- 6,000 | 4,588.50 | 4,608 | 44 |
| III | 3,300- 5,200 | 4,000 | 4,132.78 | 42 |
| IV | 2,800- 5,500 | 3,800 | 3,826.94 | 38 |
| All | 2,800- 8,400 | 4,700 | 4,862.93 | 46 |

256 principals. Each of these tables presents the data with the principals classified under the four categories of size of high-school enrollment. Comments concerning this study follow.

SUMMARY

1. The average age of graduation from college with a bachelor degree is twenty-two years.

2. There is a number of the principals who not only attended teachers colleges but also both teachers and liberal arts colleges.

3. That principals are alert to the need for improvement, either professional or academic, probably professional for the most part, is shown by the fact that of 256 principals, 251 have done graduate study and of these 181 hold degrees above the bachelor's. (Seven principals did not indicate their degrees in the biennial surveys.)

4. Tenure is high with the average of sixteen years in the same school (probably not all years as a principal).

5. It would be expected that principals in the smaller high school would do some teaching. In the Proposed Regulations for the Approval of High Schools, a suggested table was as follows:

| | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|
| In a school of over 400 pupils | 0 classes a day |
| " " " " 301-400 " | 1 class a day |
| " " " " 201-300 " | 2 classes a day |
| " " " " 101-200 " | 3 " " " |
| " " " " less than 100 pupils | 4 " " " |

6. In conclusion, a principal of a high school in Massachusetts receives an average salary of \$4,900, does very little actual teaching, has experience of twenty-four years, therefore, is probably forty-six years of age. He has been employed in the same school for sixteen years, has four years of college in his preparation, with sufficient graduate study so that he holds a master's degree. (In 1938-1939 the median salary was \$3,000, and the median of previous experience was nineteen years, making the estimate of average age, forty-one.)

Tooling Up for FAMILY FINANCIAL SECURITY EDUCATION

FRED T. WILHELMS

From insight to action; from words to brass tacks. Always the gap is a big one, where our curriculum is concerned. And always to fill the gap, must come the hard engineering phase—*tooling up* for the new assignment.

Behind terms like "the imperative needs of youth" and "life adjustment education" stand insights that open up a radically new approach to building a school. Yet, until years of hard spade-work is done, they are only words. To make an intelligent choice, principals and other curriculum workers need a crisp prospectus of alternative possibilities, a clean-cut picture of desired objectives and working content. Busy teachers need teaching tools, well-tried guides to ways of doing the job, instructional resources for their students.

This is the story of what one group, in one area of the curriculum, is doing to change "education for economic competence" from a group of words into sound, workable practice. They are hammering out the stuff that teachers need. If you wish to help your students better to meet the realities of life with wisdom and organized common sense, get the materials listed at the end of this article. They are not the final word—not by a long shot—but they will provide a running start.—*Editor.*

Education for economic competence has two halves: the one toward effectiveness at work—production; the other, education for consumption—effectiveness and wisdom in managing one's resources. We ought to have seen that long ago, but somehow didn't—at least not clearly—not even after the Educational Policies Commission pointed it up so plainly in *Education for Economic Well-Being*. And so, with huge high-school programs of vocational education attending so well

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to the one half, we have kept on giving only a passing nod to the other, the life-management half.

Maybe that was only natural. For in earlier times, when production methods were crude, economic scarcity was the keynote; the pressing problem was on the producer side. And the schools—society's trouble shooters—properly tackled that problem (contributed more to its solution by the way, than they've ever been credited with).

But times change. Production zoomed. Abundance—so far as production possibilities were concerned—became an American byword. The key problem shifted to the consumer side. Production for one's own use became the exception; nearly everything was translated into terms of money—wages, salaries, profits. People became money-dependent, as never before. For the masses of people productive skills became steadily easier to learn, as jobs were sub-divided into ever-simpler units. But the new load on consumer competence is tremendous. For today's family, training in *financial management* is simply indispensable.

It is needed immediately in grade school and high school. Take a long look at the incomes your students earn right now: farm boys making hundreds and even thousands of dollars a year on 4-H projects, *etc.* City boys earning substantial salaries in part-time and summer jobs. Look at the money they *spend* for their families. Many a ninth-grade girl does more shopping than her mother—especially if the mother is employed. Every study of the amounts of cash handled by high-school students comes up with amazing findings. Then ask yourself whether we have anticipated the needs these conditions pose. Ask yourself whether we haven't overlooked a source of motivation for important life-long education.

Sensing the need, a few pioneer schoolmen went to work at it in the twenties and thirties. In the early forties the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals launched its vigorous, positive attack, stimulating widespread action. In the Study's five-point program, one major emphasis was on financial management. And now in the fifties, a new group has taken the ball. Concentrating upon that one financial emphasis, it is developing it in depth.

THE COMMITTEE ON FAMILY FINANCIAL SECURITY EDUCATION

Working toward a definition of its scope and purpose, this committee early listed eight areas of concern: budgeting, Federal social security, life insurance, general insurance, savings programs, pension

plans, investments, and home ownership. Later it grouped these in ten major categories:

1. Personal income and budgeting
2. Banking institutions and their services
3. Savings institutions and their services
4. Consumer credit and borrowing
5. Insurance of all kinds
6. Social security and welfare plans
7. Renting and buying a home
8. Investments
9. Taxes
10. Wills and trusts

But perhaps the committee's¹ work will have more meaning if we set the problem in another fashion: Our youth move into a society where money income and its wise management are more important than ever before, simply because we now turn almost all our production income into money and then use the money to "buy a living." Competent financial management—as any experienced marriage counselor can tell us after years of working with families that have gone on the rocks—is often a crucial factor in family success. Almost without exception, happy families are economically stable families. The stability is hard to achieve in these days of high prices and high taxes. Our peculiarly modern problems of periodic depressions, with their mass unemployment, generate unprecedented insecurity because even a short period "out of a job" means serious trouble.

A whole constellation of new conditions makes financial security for old age one of our great personal, as well as social, concerns. Much more than in the past, old people need money income to be happy. It takes substantial savings to provide that income for the jobless period of retirement, both because interest rates are lower and because people live longer—therefore retire longer—nowadays. Such savings are hard to amass; in fact, they are likely to be accumulated only by skillful, provident persons trained to use banks, insurance, and investment resources with foresight and wisdom.

¹Organized in 1947 by its present chairman, Chicago's General Superintendent Harold C. Hunt, this committee includes Thomas H. Briggs, Director of the Consumer Education Study; Benjamin C. Willis, Superintendent at Buffalo and past chairman of the U. S. Office of Education's Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth; George C. Galphin, Chairman of the Department of Psychology and Education at Drexel Institute; E. D. Grizzell, Dean of the University of Pennsylvania's School of Education; Harry M. Rice, Principal, Bloomfield Senior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey; and Professor Handen Forkner of Teachers College, Columbia University. Participating from the ranks of the Institute of Life Insurance, which has provided financial assistance, are the Committee's secretary, R. Wilfred Kelsey, Director of the Institute's Financial Security Education Division; and Adolph A. Rydgren, Chairman of the Board of Continental American Life Insurance Company.

But there is something deeper, too—perhaps, says the committee, even more important in the long run. Family life is the basis of our American democracy. If sound financial management bolsters the family, it strengthens the nation. The more so because only the understanding of sound financial planning will help bring American youth to the enriched philosophy of individual thrift, initiative, and enterprise so important to the American way of life.

The problem, then, is simply: What kind of education will best prepare our young people to cope with these problems and build themselves happy, secure financial careers?

Certainly no curriculum which brushes off lightly this cluster of problems can be considered close to real life. Vocational education without a balancing attention to this second side of economic life is a farce. Family life education without this foundation stone is a fancy superstructure, to be toppled by the first winds of adversity. And a program of education for life adjustment which omitted the financial adjustments everyone has to make would be fantastic. Add two demonstrated facts:

1. The practical subject matter of financial management is of compelling interest to youth.
2. It makes an excellent vehicle for teaching economic understandings essential to good citizenship, as well as appreciation of our free economic system.

Obviously there is no lack of reasons why something needs to be done by the schools, now.

HOW MUCH IS BEING DONE?

Are the needs listed above being served in our schools? The committee sought evidence through two related studies carried on by Briggs and Forkner at Teachers' College, Columbia University. The one was a study of textbooks, the other of practices as reported by teachers.

Textbook Analysis

Recognizing that textbook content gives a pretty good index of what is taught, the committee invited publishers to submit for analysis all books relating to its listed areas of concern. Briefly, it found that:

1. A group of consumer education books gave most nearly adequate treatment to the whole spread of problems concerned. (Note, however, that in terms of total enrollment such books are still used by few and have little impact on general education.)
2. Among the rest, books in the business education field gave far more attention than any others. (Note again the limited student audience reached.) However, this relatively good showing was marred by the

fact that the presentations were mostly technical rather than "consumer-oriented"—hence seldom useful for general education purposes. In this respect the consumer education and home economics books were superior.

3. Among the topics considered important for family financial education, only budgeting and saving were even fairly well covered by a non-commercial category—home economics.
4. The social studies books—the only ones that might have reached the whole student group—were limited in coverage and vague in treatment of practically the whole range of topics.

All in all, the picture was one of the school's giving only passing attention to a group of problems that color ever person's life.

Questionnaire on School Practices

Three hundred eighty-six teachers from eighty-nine schools told what and how they were doing, what they thought of the teaching aids they used, and what they should like to do in the future. Major findings:

1. In the aggregate, about 2.7 per cent of the instructional time in the respondent schools was devoted to family financial security topics. Relatively more in large high schools, less in small ones. Teacher reactions to time allotments seemed to set about four per cent as the maximum time that could be found in the present curriculum. But two thirds of the teachers already doing considerable work in the field thought students needed much more.
2. The business curriculum as a whole represented both the largest concentration of instructional time and the most comprehensive coverage for each student. Note that, at most, this involves less than a quarter of the school population. Consumer economics courses also gave broad coverage, but were found in fewer than ten per cent of all schools, and even there involved few of the students.
3. In general, non-commercial students were being led into only a skimpy treatment of any of the topics concerned, frequently having no contact at all with some of the topics.
4. By far the heaviest concentration was at the eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels, and this was where the teachers thought it should be. This placement is excellent for those who complete these grades, but ignores the needs of the many who drop out earlier.
5. Pamphlets, charts, and films were the most favored teaching aids. The committee concluded that such aids would be likely to help more than additional work on comprehensive textbooks.
6. The one topic most often studied was budgeting and saving.

Again, the picture which emerges is one of casual, unco-ordinated, skimpy instruction. The time has come for soul searching. We have talked lengthily about gearing instruction to the real-life needs of youth and adults. *Do we mean business*—or are we just talking?

Despite the discouraging record so far, the writer believes that as a profession we do mean business—very serious business. The readi-

ness to act is here; but we are vague and uncertain as to just what to do and how to do it. We need concrete, specific guides.

A WORKSHOP PITCHES IN

Gathered at the University of Pennsylvania the two past summers, seventy key educators from thirty states, backed by a generous research grant, have been hammering the raw materials into shape. This workshop, financed and supervised by the Committee on Family Financial Security Education, is the Committee's opening gun in a long-range program to meet the practical, working needs of teachers, as shown by the Committee's previous studies. As always those needs are two-fold:

1. In-service training of outstanding teachers to take the lead
2. Production of teaching tools for all schools

The Committee receives its support from the Institute of Life Insurance which is keenly interested in the same objectives. It has so far worked with the Wharton School because it is outstanding in the field of financial training. The School of Education of the University of Pennsylvania helps to make the results directly useful to elementary and secondary schools. But the Committee hopes soon to establish added workshops in other places, as well as to work directly with local school systems. It provides travel and tuition scholarships to teachers nominated by their superintendents (or, in teachers colleges by deans or presidents) and selected by the University of Pennsylvania Admissions Committee.

Drawn chiefly from the ranks of social studies, business education, home economics, and home and family life education, the workshopers have spent their mornings getting sound economic background and full factual information; for, on subjects like insurance and credit, we schoolmen commonly have too bookish a view, too little contact with real operations. To provide the expert help, the faculty of the Wharton School of Finance has been drawn upon heavily. Then, in the afternoons, applying their own expert knowledge of student needs and school programs, workshop groups have worked at selecting what needs to be taught to all youth and at shaping it into teachable form.

It should be stated emphatically that no effort is being made to organize another new and separate field of instruction—of which our high schools already have plenty! Quite the contrary, every effort is made to integrate this additional necessary material into the going program. Resource unit titles like "Partnership in Family Financial Security in the Early Years of Marriage" reveal a strong drift to combine financial management into family life programs. "Family Fi-

Financial Security Education in Mathematics" represents one definite attempt to combine it into existing subject-matter fields.

One example of how the projected program may work out is to be found at Toms River, New Jersey. For the past six years this school has been offering an elective one-semester course covering the area of financial security. Bearing the title "Economic Competence," the course is taught during the second semester of the senior year, following a semester on "Consumer Buying." In the words of Instructor Robert Kelly, it "treats of an intelligent utilization of available money so that a person can derive the greatest benefit from those inevitable business transactions that will occur during the course of his life." The course begins with a discussion of money—what it is, and how it is obtained. It then takes up methods of buying and paying for goods, methods of borrowing, including notes and mortgages. The next section is called "Savings and Financial Security" and covers investments, savings accounts, Christmas Club savings, postal savings, government bonds, building and loan associations, stocks, and bonds. There is one section devoted to insurance including fire, casualty, and life. Another section deals with taxes and government. After a discussion of budgeting, the course concludes with a study of the methods of transmitting money.

"Some of the topics treated in this course have no immediate and direct bearing upon the lives of our pupils," writes Dr. Edgar M. Finck in the introduction of the course of study. "None of them is in the process of buying or mortgaging homes. To that extent this is 'cold-storage' education. We have tried to bring together material, to raise questions, and to suggest activities which will tend to enable pupils to meet more successfully the economic problems which most of them will have to face."

The pattern will vary from school to school. In St. Paul the home economics department has developed for boys and girls a program in home management which devotes much time to consumer buying and financial management. In Kansas City the subject of financial security has long been part of the basic program. Tulsa devotes at least one unit in its Life Adjustment program to financial planning. San Francisco is introducing a six-week unit in its Senior Goals course.

Methods will vary, too. In Rochester, New York, home economics students work from a rich variety of actual family budgets and financial records, covering even such items as the costs of a serious illness. In Cincinnati, business education students have made firsthand studies of credit facilities and family credit use, revealing in one area a surprising prominence of the ole-fashioned pawnshop. In a Philadelphia

high school, students have actually furnished model apartments in a low-rent housing development, on an extremely low budget, remodeling and refinishing furniture and in general substituting "elbow grease" for money. In the West many schools have seniors doing "field work" in nursery schools and well-baby clinics. And a typical classroom scene is likely to include an exhibit of a layette, complete with cost details. In one school after another, student committees do actual shopping for a week's food.

Everywhere it is agreed that the nearer we come to the real thing the better. There should be activity, firsthand experience—lots of it. Life insurance discussions can involve real policies—and the agents who sell them—not mere platitudes. A study of banks should take the youngsters right into a bank, if for no greater purpose than to dispel the awe that holds so many people at arm's length.

Almost any community has wonderful personnel resources: bankers, insurance men, financial advisers of various sorts, social workers who help with budgets and management, and many others. Such people will be delighted to help, for they see too many financial crack-ups among adults not to have a zeal to guide young families past the pitfalls. We need have little concern that they will selfishly seek to exploit the schools for narrow purposes. But we should work hard to help them work effectively with youth, since teaching is, after all, not their field.

HOW STUDENTS FEEL

On one point, at least, we need have no hesitancy. If we can get our curriculum into close touch with the real concerns of life, our students will be delighted. We need not even wait until we, as teachers, have everything neatly formulated, predigested, ready-made. In fact, it is better the other way. The teacher need not know all the answers. What he does need is wisdom and skill in helping students make firsthand studies. There is something appealing about this to energetic youth. Their eyes shine and there is tremendous release of energy when for the first time they feel that they are getting down to the brass tacks of life. Every survey made among our graduates, asking what they wish their schools had done for them, shows a high priority of demand for practical training in financial management as a step to wholesome family life. The author has seen and worked with too many happy, vigorous groups to have the slightest doubt that this is true.

AND THE COMMUNITY?

Not every lay citizen is ready, to be sure, for any cutting of traditional, remote-from-life subject matter to make room for more perti-

ment stuff. The traditional content has gained sanctity with the centuries. We educators have a responsibility to help laymen to a more realistic perspective.

Nevertheless, the laity has long since intuitively sensed the futility of some of what we spend time and taxes to achieve. They have a common-sense readiness for a more functional curriculum. Wherever, for example, the Consumer Education Study consulted with businessmen, labor leaders, professional men, and housewives, explaining its purposes and the nature of its content, the result was an enthusiastic reception amounting almost to a go-ahead mandate. And numerous clippings show that as the press has become more aware of the Pennsylvania workshop on family financial security education, it has given a ringing endorsement.

THE TIME IS RIPE

All in all, the time has come for action. The "new" population of our high schools has a great yearning for guidance in the real affairs of everyday life. The adults of the community are receptive, and need only be brought into a close, working relationship to help us. Teachers and administrators everywhere are almost unconsciously shifting toward a life-centered program, even within old academic subjects.

Education for family financial security is only one small part of the larger program for economic competence, for good personal adjustment, and for wholesome family life. And the workshop here discussed has so far made only a beginning, even in this delimited field. But its members, few as they are, are missionaries to the whole profession and engineers designing materials for all. And it is of such building stones as these educators are producing, by painstaking labor, that a new and better program for all youth will be built.

That is why the materials listed below, and others not listed, are well worth your attention. As was said at the outset, they are not all finished, polished products. They are not the last word. But they do represent a great resource of accumulated background and successful experience. Why not give them a try?

TEACHING AIDS

Committee publications: Committee on Family Financial Security Education, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

Teaching Financial Security. An eight-page leaflet describing the Committee's program including the workshops, curriculum study, and aims of the program. Free on request.

Financial Security Topics for Teachers. This periodical leaflet may be secured on request. It lists new materials (including films and film-strips)

as they become available, tells what is going on in the field, and provides charts, graphs, and informative material nicely adapted to classroom use.

Resource Units from the Workshop

Building for Family Financial Security, developed by a home and family life education group. 59 pages. Includes a radio script. For secondary-school teachers.

Partnership in Family Financial Security in the Early Years of Marriage. 28 pages. For a secondary-school course in preparation for marriage.

Family Financial Security Education for Mathematics Students. 36 pages. Prepared by a group of mathematics teachers, for 8th-12th grade mathematics classes.

Some Supplementary Teaching Aids on Financial Security Education. Mostly free and inexpensive booklets from business organizations and associations, listed topically. 16 pages.

A List of Motion Pictures and Filmstrips on Financial Security. Listed alphabetically according to topic, with information about availability. 15 pages.

Selected Related Materials from Other Sources

Facts Booklets of the Better Business Bureaus. A series of 28 booklets on "Facts You Should Know" about budgeting, savings, investment companies, securities, borrowing life insurance, etc. Single copies free to teachers. Added copies 5 cents each. Order from Association of Better Business Bureaus, 726 Chrysler Building, New York 17, New York.

The Consumer Education Series. Eleven teaching-learning text-units of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. 50 cents. Usual NEA discounts on quantity. Especially relevant here are "Investing in Yourself," "Buying Insurance," "Using Consumer Credit," "Managing your Money," "Learning to Use Advertising," "Effective Shopping," "Using Standards and Labels," and "The Consumer and the Law." Published with the Series is a teachers handbook. "Consumer Education in Your School," valuable as a help in planning. 60 cents.

COMPETITIVE ATHLETIC LEAGUES NOT DESIRABLE FOR CHILDREN

Highly organized competitive athletic leagues are undesirable for children and youth of elementary and junior high schools, according to Donald A. Dukelow, M.D., and Fred V. Hein, Ph.D., consultants to the American Medical Association Bureau of Health Education. "The general public would do well to accept the professional advice of physicians and educators and allow these youngsters to grow up without the unnecessary emotional and physical strain of playing gladiator in the public arena," Drs. Dukelow and Hein wrote in the current (November) *Today's Health*, published by the A. M. A. The country's leading educational and medical groups, the doctors stated, have recommended that "interscholastic leagues should be confined to senior high schools. Interscholastic activities for junior high-school pupils should be limited to occasional meets or games. Junior high-school boys should not compete in American football. An extensive program of intramural activities is strongly recommended for these students."

Public Relations and You!

CARL C. BYERS

GOOD teaching is good public relations. Good public relations begins in the classroom. Every school employee has an important role to play in promoting good attitudes between the school and community. Good, bad, or indifferent—in your way, you are interpreting or misinterpreting the schools to your community.

Pride in the profession and loyalty to the profession will build goodwill for you, your fellow teachers, and the schools you represent. Don't gripe. If you can't see any good at times, keep the bad to yourself. Stand on the sidelines and watch yourself go by; laugh at the many unnecessary loads you may be carrying. Don't be a pessimist! A pessimist is a person who feels bad when he feels good for fear that he'll feel worse when he feels better. He expects hard luck and generally looks as if he had just met it. Be an optimist! Those people who keep up on their toes will never run down at the heels.

We have all the blueprints, specifications, and directions that we need for building a better world. We do not lack plans, formulas, ideas, or philosophies. For centuries, people have been putting into words good relations principles to guide us. The best reference that I can suggest is simply the Bible with its Golden Rule and Sermon on the Mount.

What is lacking? Perhaps these truths are merely so many words frozen into pages of books. If so, its high time that we release these words and ideas into action. If we can teach tomorrow's citizens and today's citizens to think positively about the democracy in which they live, to understand and appreciate their own country, its problems, resources, aspirations, and ideals, we shall have paid, in some measure, our rent for the space we occupy in the community.

Improvements in government structure, statutes, and ordinances are good, but not enough. Subject matter information in itself is inadequate.

Carl C. Byers is Superintendent of the Parma Public Schools, Parma, Ohio. This administrative bulletin was the first one of the present school year which he distributed to all his staff members and used as the basis for his comments at a meeting. It was also sent to key citizens in the community to point up the direction of mutual efforts.

quate if personal integrity, honesty, and self-discipline are lacking. No society has survived or can survive without a moral order. Coupled with subject matter knowledge, we need to build a fervent loyalty to moral and spiritual values to temper the changing living patterns and complexities in these times of crisis.

If we, as teachers, parents, and community citizens, dedicate our daily teaching efforts in the direction of moral reconstruction; if we build into our teaching some of the old-fashioned fundamentals, such as character, purpose, industry, and mastery; these efforts will stand out as beacon lights in an atmosphere foggy with confusion and commotion—and provide a sense of purpose and a sense of direction as we assume public relations responsibilities to better the society in which we live.

"Teachers mold our nation's future" is a fundamental truth. Teaching is important. All other professions are dependent upon the work of the teaching profession. Don't say apologetically, "Oh, I'm just a teacher." If you do, that's the kind you'll likely be. Teaching can and should be fun for everyone concerned. Your helping prove the point will be good public relations.

What you can do:

1. Good public relations for the teaching profession begins with you.
2. You have a selling job to do, both in the classroom and in the community. A good classroom teaching job is good public relations for any school system.
3. Be an emissary of goodwill for the schools, building confidence and respect for the teaching profession at every opportunity.
4. Be proud of your profession. Be proud of your position. Do your job in such a manner that the community will be proud that you are an employee in the Parma Public Schools.
5. Show an interested and sincere attitude toward both pupils and parents.
6. Know the facts regarding building and operating proposals and what their approval will do for the schools.
7. Attend community meetings as evidence of your personal interest to the board of education and other interested citizens who give of their time and effort for expanded educational opportunities and facilities for the boys and girls in the Parma School District.
8. The ultimate aim of our daily efforts should be to make the citizens of the school district keenly conscious of their schools. If what we are doing for the boys and girls is sold on a day-to-day continuous basis, then community interest and support will be available to meet current needs.

HOME AND SCHOOL—A TEAM

Home and school should never become the opposite ends of a seesaw in the experience of a child. Home and school should be the two halves of a perfect whole—completing, not competing with each other.

Teachers are human. Parents are human. Many teachers are parents and all parents should be teachers. Teachers will make mistakes. So will parents. We also know children will make mistakes and behave in undesirable ways. None of us will ever achieve perfection, but we can strive always for improvement. (That's good public relations.)

Whether a problem be teacher-child, parent-child, or parent-teacher, we know that wholesome positive relationships can't be developed if they are fed on such fuel as nagging, dictating, teasing, condemning, threatening, or fanned with sarcasm and ridicule. If ever there was a time when friendly guidance is needed, it's when a problem exists. (That's good public relations.) Negative, wordy abuse solves nothing and serves only to make a problem more nearly unsolvable.

We must be concerned with the proper handling (not mishandling) of the many and varied teenage problems that appear in any community. There is much confusion. Many of today's youngsters were born during the depression years, lived their childhood during the emotional stress of World War II, and are now emerging into adolescence and young adulthood in another time of crisis. If some of them become problems, maybe they are not being supplied with the firmness and direction they need. We know that children need and desire directions which they feel as support.

As teachers, you are "part-time inheritors" of children. A cheery smile or an encouraging word from you may give some youngster a new lease on life. Happy teachers and happy parents equals happy children. Poor teachers need to be criticized constructively. So do poor parents. We could do better with fewer of both. If now and then you get to feeling like a pressure-cooker—why not just whistle? That's what the tea kettle does, and it never boils over.

As you become a "part-time inheritor" of a growing family in a school home that will be filled to capacity, it may be *apropos* to redefine *esprit de corps*. To quote *Webster's Dictionary*, "it is the common spirit existing in the members of a group and inspiring devotion, enthusiasm and jealous regard for the honor of the group."

We're crowded! That's to be expected in a growing community. However, it is your job and mine to direct a sanely progressive program through this continuing period of rapid growth with our feet on the ground (be a good "Injun" and don't bet off the reservation) so as not to become a victim of claustrophobia, bulging blood pressure, an ulcerated stomach, or a frustrated spirit.

There's work to do—together. Be a member of the team. (That's good public relations.) Even a mule can't do much kicking if he's pulling his share of the load.

What Is an Adequate High School Staff?

HOWARD G. SPALDING

SOME fifteen years ago the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards undertook to determine, from an analysis of extensive data from two hundred selected high schools, what were the most significant factors in determining the quality of a high school. Three factors were found to be most important; *first*, the number and qualifications of the teaching staff; *second*, the leadership provided by the administration, and, *third*, the degree to which the staff and the administration were actively attempting to improve the services of the school.

That the numerical adequacy of a staff is of fundamental importance, every high-school principal will agree. At every turn a principal is aware of work that needs to be done to improve the education of the boys and girls in his school, but which cannot be done because there is no one available to do it. Curriculum revision is of vital importance, but this work requires more time than is available. Extracurricular activities for every pupil is an ideal to which the school is committed, but sponsorship cannot be provided for all the groups for which there is need. New guidance activities are undertaken, but time for them is too limited. Clerical work occupies the time of administrators, guidance workers, and teachers which a limited number of clerical and secretarial workers is unable to do. With the best of management, the available manpower and woman power is insufficient to enable the school to render, in the best possible way, all of the services that the principal and the other members of the staff believe to be necessary and desirable. And as the school improves the quality of its services, the conception of what is necessary and desirable expands.

The problem of adequacy of staff is of vital concern to superintendents also, for it is the superintendent who must provide additional staff members. As salary levels rise and funds become more difficult

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to obtain, the most expedient means for easing the financial burden may seem to be by limiting or even reducing the size of the high-school staff. Unless the superintendent is convinced that an adequate staff is necessary and has some standards by which the adequacy of the staff of his high schools can be measured, cuts may be made which will seriously impair the efficiency of the schools.

The interest of teachers in this problem is obvious. Yet when teachers are faced with the forced option of limiting salaries or limiting the size of the staff, they are all too likely to take the latter course.

Research studies which have shown little advantage from instruction in small classes, so far as objectively measurable outcomes are concerned, have often been cited to justify high pupil-teacher ratios. Yet there is no more reason to believe that something can be obtained for nothing in education than in business and industry, where the principle that something cannot be obtained for nothing appears to be fairly well established. The "something" which results from such attempts at economy is, inevitably, a restricted program, devoid of those services which are essential to the proper guidance and good development of young people.

Probably the most practical approach to the question, "What is an adequate high-school staff?" can be made by studying the staff organizations of high schools which are relatively well supported by their communities. The number of people on the staffs of such schools represents, in each instance, a resolution of forces, a balance between educational aspirations and financial pressures. In schools where such pressures are relatively weak, it is reasonable to expect that the actual provision of staff represents a fairly close approach to true adequacy. The distribution of available workers in such schools represents, in each instance, the considered judgment of administrators as to the relative importance of the various services which the school renders.

With these thoughts in mind, somewhat detailed information about their staffs was obtained in the spring of 1950 from the principals of twenty-six high schools in the 800-2,500 enrollment range. The schools selected were known to be in the higher-than-average expenditure range and were also known to enjoy a more-than-local reputation for being good schools. In this study the time of people responsible for several types of work was distributed among the types of work which they performed. For example, the time of a staff member devoting four fifths of his time to guidance and one fifth to teaching was entered 0.8 under guidance and 0.2 under teaching. P was used to indicate a part-

time worker, C to indicate that the service was performed for the school by a member of the central office staff. The data obtained from the schools are summarized in Table I, "Staff Organization of Twenty-Six Selected High Schools."

An examination of these data leads to several conclusions which may serve as guides in determining the adequacy of the staff of a particular high school of similar size and type.

Staff-Pupil Ratio. In computing this ratio, all professional employees, administrative, instructional, and guidance were included. Librarians and cafeteria managers were included as professional employees since in such schools they are more likely than not to have professional status. The average staff-pupil ratio was found to be 1/17.4. Even among the schools of this selected group the variation of the ratio was quite large, from 1/14.1 to 1/20.4.

One measure of the improvement in staff adequacy that is needed in our schools can be found by comparing the average ratio of these selected schools with the average ratio for all four-year high schools in the 1000-1499 enrollment range of 1/23.6 and for schools of the same type in the 1500-2499 range of 1/24.5. These data, computed from material contained in studies cited below,¹ indicate that the average large high school would need to increase its staff by approximately forty per cent to equal the provision of staff in the selected schools.

Administrator-Pupil Ratio. The average administrator-pupil ratio, found by dividing the total pupil enrollment of the twenty-six schools by the total of administrators was found to be 1/355, with a range of from 1/155 to 1/694. These ratios are affected to some extent by the fact that in some schools administrators are assigned more guidance duties than in others and it is possible that the principals reporting did not accurately estimate the division of administrators' time between administration and guidance.

Guidance Worker-Pupil Ratio. The reports clearly indicate a preference for somewhat centralized guidance services, since twenty-three schools report that their work is organized with a head counselor, usually assisted by teacher-counselors. In the three remaining schools, the guidance services are provided by home-room teachers working under the direction of the deans. Since the question of load of counselors is still a debatable one, the guidance worker-pupil ratio of 1/457 is of some interest. The ratio of guidance workers to teachers was found to be 1/25.7. In the Gaumnitz and Tompkins' studies the ratios for four-year and separate three-year high schools in the 1000-1499

¹ Circular No. 317, U. S. Office of Education, *High School Staff and Size of School*, and Circular No. 304, *How Large Are Our Public High Schools*, by W. H. Gaumnitz and Ellsworth Tompkins.

TABLE I. (continued)

| | Annual Cost per Pupil | Enroll. | Total Staff | Pupil Ratio | Administration | | | | | | | | | | Total Admin. |
|---|-----------------------------|---------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|--------------|--------|-----------------|
| | | | | | Prin. | Asst. Prin. | Dean of Boys | Dean of Girls | Supr. of Inst. | Regis- trar | Dir. of Act. | Asst. Mgr. | Bus. Mgr. | Others | |
| Norwich Free Academy Norwich, Conn. | \$275.00 | 1800 | 103 | 17.5 | 1 | 1 | | | | | 1 | | | 1 | 4 |
| Oak Park Sr. H. S. Oak Park, Ill. | 450.00 | 2500 | 144.6 | 17.3 | 1 | | 3.3 | 3.3 | | 2 | | | 1 | | 10.6 |
| Shaker Hts. Sr. H. S. Shaker Heights, Ohio | | 851 | 60.5 | 14.1 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | 1 | .5 | 1 | | | 5.5 |
| South Side H. S. Rockville Center, N. Y. | 340.00 | 1067 | 55.2 | 19.4 | 1 | 1 | | | | | .2 | | | | 2.2 |
| Teaneck Jr. & Sr. H. S. Teaneck, N. J. | | 1978 | 100.2 | 19.7 | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | | .5 | .5 | | | 4 |
| University Sr. H. S. Los Angeles, Cal. | 313.78 | 1826 | 101.4 | 18.0 | 1 | 2 | | | | 1 | | | 1 | | 5 |
| Upper Darby Sr. H. S. Upper Darby, Pa. | | 1600 | 78.5 | 20.4 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | | 1 | | | | | 4 |
| Weequahic Sr. H. S. Newark, N. J. | 351.20 | 2092 | 109 | 19.2 | 1 | 2 | | | | | | | | | 3 |
| West Senior H. S. Rockford, Ill. | 386.37 | 1251 | 67.5 | 18.5 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | | 1 | | | | .5 | 4.5 |
| White Plains Sr. H. S. White Plains, N. Y. | 450.00 | 1474 | 90 | 16.4 | 1 | | | | | 1 | .6 | .4 | .2 | .8 | 4 |
| Wilmington Sr. H. S. Wilmington, Del. | | 1360 | 74.3 | 18.3 | 1 | 1 | | .5 | | | .4 | | | | 2.9 |
| Wilson Sr. H. S. Long Beach, Cal. | | 1800 | 89 | 20.2 | 1 | 3 | | | C | | | | 1 | | 5 |
| Av. Ratio | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1/355 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1/17.4 |

NOTE: C—Service provided from the central office.

P—Part-time worker.

Total staff includes people listed in columns 1-26 plus cafeteria manager and nurses.

TABLE 1. (continued)

| Dir. of Guid. | Guidance | | | | Instruction | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|--------|-------|----------------|----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| | Head Coun- seller | Teacher Counselor | Others | Total | Dept. Heads | Teachers | Coordi- nator | Librar- ian | Special Teachers |
| (16) | (17) | (18) | (19) | (20) | (21) | (22) | (23) | (24) | (25) |
| (26) | (17) | (18) | (19) | (20) | (21) | (22) | (23) | (24) | (25) |
| (26) | (17) | (18) | (19) | (20) | (21) | (22) | (23) | (24) | (25) |
| A. B. Davis Sr. H. S. | 1 | .8 | | 1.8 | 12 | 55 | | 1.7 | |
| Mount Vernon, N. Y. | 1 | 2.5 | | 3.5 | 11 | 53.5 | | 2 | |
| Bulkeley Sr. H. S. | | | | | | | | | |
| Hartford, Conn. | | | | | | | | | |
| Columbia Sr. H. S. | | | | | | | | | |
| South Orange, N. J. | | | | | | | | | |
| Evanston Twp. Sr. H. S. & | 1 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 12 | 105.5 | | 2.5 | 5 |
| Evanston, Ill. Comm. Col. | | | | | | | | | |
| Great Neck Jr. & Sr. H. S. | 1 | 3 | | 4 | 12 | 90 | | 2 | |
| Great Neck, N. Y. | | | | | | | | | |
| Haverford Twp. Sr. H. S. | | | | | | | | | |
| Havertown, Pa. | | | | | | | | | |
| Hempstead Sr. H. S. | 1 | 5.5 | | 6.5 | 7 | 101 | 1 | 3 | |
| Hempstead, N. Y. | | | | | | | | | |
| Lakewood Sr. H. S. | | | | | | | | | |
| Lakewood, Ohio | | | | | | | | | |
| Lincoln Sr. H. S. | 1 | | | 1 | | 37 | | .8 | 2 |
| San Jose, Cal. | | | | | | | | | |
| Lower Merion Sr. H. S. | 1 | 1 | | 2 | 8 | 63 | | 2 | |
| Ardmore, Pa. | | | | | | | | | |
| Lyons Twp. H. S. & Jr. Col. | 1 | 4 | | 5 | 8 | 74 | | 3 | |
| La Grange, Ill. | | | | | | | | | |
| Montclair Sr. H. S. | 1 | 2.6 | | 4.6 | 7 | 48.4 | .4 | 2 | |
| Montclair, N. J. | | | | | | | | | |
| New Rochelle Sr. H. S. | 5 | | | 5 | 9 | 72 | | 2 | |
| New Rochelle, N. Y. | | | | | | | | | |
| Newton Sr. H. S. | 1 | 3 | 2.5 | 6.5 | 9 | 110 | | 3 | |
| Newtonville, Mass. | | | | | | | | | |

TABLE I. (continued)

| Dir. of Guid. | Head Coun- selor | Guidance | | | Instruction | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------|----------------------|--------|-------|----------------|----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------|
| | | Teacher Counselor | Others | Total | Dept. Heads | Teachers | Coordi- nator | Librar- ian | Special Teachers | Total |
| (16) | (17) | (18) | (19) | (20) | (21) | (22) | (23) | (24) | (25) | (26) |
| Norwich Free Academy Norwich, Conn. | 1 | | 1.6 | 1 | 3.6 | 10 | 2 | 2 | | 93.4 |
| Oak Park Sr. H. S. Oak Park, Ill. | Dean and H. R. Teachers | | | | 14 | 116 | | 2 | | 132 |
| Shaker Hts. Sr. H. S. Shaker Heights, Ohio | Dean and H. R. Teachers | | | | 10 | 41 | | 2 | | 53 |
| South Side H. S. | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | | 2 | | 48 |
| Rockville Center, N. Y. | 2 | | 1.2 | | 3.2 | 4 | | 2 | | 91 |
| Teaneck Jr. & Sr. H. S. Teaneck, N. J. | | 1 | 1.4 | | 2.4 | 12 | 6 | 1 | | 92.6 |
| University Sr. H. S. Los Angeles, Cal. | | | 1.5 | | 1.5 | 8 | | 2 | | 72 |
| Upper Darby Sr. H. S. Upper Darby, Pa. | | 2 | 2.2 | | 4.2 | 7.8 | | 3 | | 97.8 |
| Weequahic Sr. H. S. Newark, N. J. | | 3 | | | 3 | 9 | | 1 | | 59 |
| West Senior H. S. Rockford, Ill. | | 3 | | | 3 | | | 2 | | 81 |
| White Plains Sr. H. S. White Plains, N. Y. | | 5 | 2.9 | | 3.4 | | 2 | 2 | | 66 |
| Wilmington Sr. H. S. Wilmington, Del. | C | 2 | 1 | | 3 | 13 | | 2 | | 80 |
| Wilson Sr. H. S. Long Beach, Cal. | | | | | | | | | | |
| Av. Ratio | | | | 1/457 | | 1/23.1 | | 1/826 | | 1/20.0 |

range were found to be 1/27 and 1/30 respectively while in schools of 1500-2499 of both types the ratio of 1/25 was found to prevail. However, it should be noted that the teacher-pupil ratios in these schools were about forty per cent higher than in the selected schools; so the counselor-pupil ratios would also be about forty per cent higher, or in the neighborhood of 1/640. It seems evident that these ratios are too high and that it will be impossible to render really adequate guidance services until they are reduced even below the average prevailing in the selected schools, perhaps to about 1/300.

Teacher-Pupil Ratio. The average teacher-pupil ratio of the selected schools was found to be 1/20. It is interesting to note in passing that all but four of the selected schools have departmental organizations.

Librarian-Pupil Ratio. The average librarian-pupil ratio in the twenty-six schools was found to be 1/826 with a variation of from 1/425 to 1/1826. Expressed in terms of librarian-teacher ratio, the average was 1/39.8. This is a considerably more favorable ratio than those found by Gaumnitz and Tompkins in their study. They found in regular four-year high schools and three-year senior high schools of 1000-1499 enrollment librarian-teacher ratios of 1/42 and 1/40 respectively while in schools of 1500-2499 the ratios were 1/46 for both types of school.

Clerk-Pupil Ratio. It is generally recognized that teachers commonly perform many clerical duties which might better be done by lower-salaried clerical workers. Yet schools are slow to translate this assumption into practice. This is shown quite clearly by the data of this study. In the twenty-six selected schools, clerical help is provided on a relatively liberal basis and the clerk-pupil average ratio is 1/229. Expressed in terms of clerk-teacher ratio the average is 1/11. This ratio is markedly more favorable than those found by Gaumnitz and Tompkins. In four-year and three-year senior high schools of 1000-1499 enrollment, they found ratios of 1/20 and 1/19 respectively while in schools of 1500-2499 ratios of 1/16 and 1/17 were found. It would seem evident that the more wealthy schools have seen more clearly the advantage of employing lower-paid clerical help to relieve teachers of routine duties than has been the case with the more poorly supported schools and that the latter could follow the lead of the former to good advantage. In no other respect is divergence of practice between the selected schools and all schools of similar size so great.

Other Employees. The data concerning other employees is probably less significant than that which has so far been discussed. The typical school in the 1000-2500 range has one nurse, one or more part-time doctors, and about half have a part-time dentist. Most have a single cafeteria manager as a full-time member of the school staff.

The size of custodial staffs is doubtless influenced by the size, age, and type of construction of the buildings and the size of the campus. Average ratios are, therefore, probably of little value. For what they are worth, the pupil-custodian ratios are as follows: full-time men 1/111, full-time women 1/696. Data concerning cafeteria workers is likewise of limited value, largely because the amount of time spent by part-time cafeteria workers was not specified and student help was not included in the study. The ratios, however, are as follows: full-time men 1/2339; full-time women 1/282, part-time women 1/290. From an examination of the data in Table I and from some knowledge of the practices of a number of the schools included in the study, it appears that there are very wide variations in the liberality with which custodial and cafeteria help are provided. A careful study of practices in these fields might yield some helpful results.

Staff needs. Although the twenty-six schools included in this study are more favored than most, the principals of all but five felt the need for additional staff members. Of these five, two made no comment in answer to the question, "If you were free to add members to your staff, what additions would you make?"; two stated that they considered their staffs adequate; and one fortunate principal replied, "Adequate staff at this time. When I need additional staff members I get 'em."

The greatest need for additional staff members appears to be in the administrative group, with guidance, teaching, custodial, and special services following in that order.

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|---|
| ADMINISTRATION | | Psychologist | 1 |
| Director of Activities | 4 | Psychometrist | 1 |
| Supervisor of Instruction | 4 | INSTRUCTION | |
| Curriculum Coordinator | 3 | Teachers | 5 |
| Coordinator | 2 | Remedial Reading Expert | 1 |
| Administrative Assistant | 1 | Laboratory Assistant | 1 |
| Assistant Principal | 1 | Department Heads | 1 |
| Dean of Boys | 1 | Librarian | 1 |
| GUIDANCE | | OTHER | |
| Counselors | 5 | Clerks-secretaries | 5 |
| Director of Guidance | 2 | Custodial help | 2 |
| Psychiatrist | 2 | Nurse | 1 |

CONCLUSION

This investigation, which can hardly be dignified with the name "Study," shows quite clearly that the staff of a large modern high school consists of a large number of specialists and that there is a

desire on the part of principals to add other specialists to their staffs. It also shows that, in schools where pupil expenditure is relatively high, employees in all categories are provided on a more liberal basis than is the case in less-favored schools and that this is especially true of clerks and secretaries. Wide variations in provision of staff exist in each of the categories, but the average ratios may serve as general guides in determining the adequacy of the staff of a particular high school. If this report helps principals and superintendents to obtain more adequate staffs for their schools, it will have served a useful purpose. Reports from several of the principals who participated in the study indicate that it can be so used.

YOUTH LEARNING TO FIND VOICE

In the development of personality, youth is the period during which the individual seeks to establish a sense of identity, to determine who he is and what his place in society is to be. Increasing participation in community activities gives the young person an opportunity to try out various roles, to find out what he really wants, to accept responsibility for his decisions. A democratic society that depends on people's being able and eager to make their own decisions must therefore see to it that its youth increasingly has suitable opportunities to learn such a way of life.

The White House Conference brought out clearly through its Fact Finding material, its Youth Council activities, and other parts of structure and program the tremendous significance of youth participation. The recommendations include many items on youth participation, and the Resolution on Follow-Up Program, as well as the Consensus Statement, note its importance and place responsibility on the National Midcentury Committee to maintain and develop this further.

The Committee accepted this as a goal, recognizing that much additional experience is necessary. The Committee encourages state and local committees, national organizations and their units to include youth in appropriate ways. At the same time, the Committee trying to develop a special project, possibly an institute, to look at youth participation with such questions in mind as:

What is the meaning to youth of being included in planning.

What is the meaning of youth inclusion to the adults involved?

What is the best way to secure "representative" youth? And how "representative" are they?

What are "appropriate" activities for youth participation?

What are the goals of such participation?

Attempts to foster youth participation have been made by many organizations in the months since the Conference.—*Progress Bulletin*, No. 1

Keeping the Staff Informed

M. L. STORY

CAN teachers be trusted with information about the administrative problems of the school? Is it important that teachers be kept informed? In the past, many administrators have seemed to stay perpetually on guard against talking too freely to the staff. Some have even maintained a sort of "top-secret" security regarding the inner workings of policy formulation. Today, however, the emphasis upon democratic administration has shifted this viewpoint so radically that an "informed personnel" is considered almost the first requisite of good administration. The free dissemination of information about administrative matters, equivalent to an active and free press in civil life, is almost universally advocated. Increasingly, teachers are expected not only to be aware of administrative problems but also to be actual participants in policy making and administrative planning.

There are still, of course, many differing viewpoints as to the kind of information which should be passed on regularly to the teaching staff. There are also many varying ideas regarding the best means of providing a formal channel of communication. In a recent study of opinions about democratic processes of administration, the writer included this area of "keeping the staff informed" as one of a number of possible criteria of a democratically administered school. Participating in the study were 1817 educators (920 teachers, 897 administrators) in city schools throughout the country. Their responses reveal an interesting cross-section of opinion regarding the importance of this question and its relevance to a modern conception of democratic school administration.

ARE FACULTIES KEPT INFORMED?

The study was concerned, first of all, with the respondents' judgments of their own school systems. The following question was asked:

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"How democratic is your school system in its characteristic practice with respect to keeping the faculty informed about administrative matters?" The responses were as follows:

| <i>Responses</i> | <i>Number choosing response</i> | <i>Per cent choosing response</i> |
|--|---|---|
| Conforms fully to my idea of a democratic way of administration | 590 | 32.5 |
| Conforms in most important respects to my idea of a democratic way of administration | 696 | 38.3 |
| Conforms in only a very limited way to my idea of democratic administration | 331 | 18.2 |
| Does not conform to my idea of democratic administration in any way | 150 | 8.3 |
| I am undecided or have insufficient knowledge for rating | 11 | 0.6 |
| No response | 39 | 2.1 |
| TOTALS | 1817 | 100.0 |

This summary shows a highly gratifying majority choosing the first two responses. It may be concluded that most of the participants saw no serious lack of democratic practice in this area in their own systems. It is worth noting, however, that approximately one fourth of the participants chose the third and fourth responses, thereby indicating the feeling that a more or less serious limitation existed in this area. In other words, one out of four apparently felt that his system was not meeting a democratic standard with respect to keeping the faculty informed.

HOW FULLY SHOULD THE STAFF BE INFORMED?

A second concern of the study was that of differentiating existing opinions regarding the importance which should be attached to this question of informing the staff. A set of criteria in the form of alternative statements was included, and each respondent was asked to indicate the statement which most nearly agreed with his own opinion. Additionally, each was asked to indicate the opinion which seemed to be approximately the one followed in his own school system. The statements and a tabulation of responses are as follows:

| | Your Opinion | | Opinion Followed in Your School | |
|---|-----------------|----------|---------------------------------------|----------|
| | Number | Per cent | Number | Per cent |
| Teachers should be kept fully informed about all phases of the school's administrative program. | 834 | 45.9 | 363 | 20.0 |
| Teachers should be kept informed only about administrative matters which concern their teaching activities but should have easy access to information about all other phases of the administrative program if they desire it. | 817 | 45.0 | 606 | 33.3 |
| Teachers should be kept informed only about phases of the administrative program which actually concern their teaching activities. | 44 | 2.4 | 219 | 12.1 |
| The amount of information that teachers are given about administrative matters should be left to the discretion of the principal or the superintendent. | 51 | 2.8 | 470 | 25.8 |
| Other (different opinion written in) | 3 | 0.2 | 10 | 0.6 |
| No response | 68 | 3.7 | 149 | 8.2 |
| TOTALS | 1817 | 100.0 | 1817 | 100.0 |

These responses indicate an almost universal opinion that teachers *should* be kept informed but show an interesting and almost equal division on the question of whether they should be kept "fully" informed or be given selective information with additional access to further knowledge if they desire it. It is notable that only a negligible minority seemed to believe in any actual restriction of information. Significantly, a comparison of their indicated personal opinions with the opinions which seem actually to be followed in the respondents' own school systems shows a distinct retardation in actual practice. There seems to be an appreciable weight of opinion toward improving existing practices in the dissemination of information.

WHAT PRACTICES ARE DEMOCRATIC?

In an additional effort to determine existing attitudes on this question, the inquiry raised the problem of whether some specific practice relating to giving out information was considered essential to a democratically administered school. Participants were asked to indicate whether they believed the following practice to be "essential,"

"important," "immaterial" or "undesirable": "Administrative publications or reports are distributed regularly for the purpose of keeping the staff fully informed about administrative plans and policies." Of 1817 persons questioned, 1745 replied. Of those responding, 52.6 per cent believed the practice was essential; 40.1 per cent, important; 2.2 per cent, immaterial; and 1.2 per cent, undesirable.

It can be seen from this tabulation that more than ninety per cent of the respondents considered the stated practice as either "essential" or "important" to democratic administration. Thus the consensus seems to favor a regular, formal program of providing information to the school staff, and hand in hand with this belief is the apparent attitude that such a program is a significant factor in democratizing the administration of the school.

As a final part of the inquiry, respondents were asked to list a number of *strongly democratic* practices existing in their own school systems. Of the numerous free responses submitted, dealing with all aspects of administration, an appreciable number dealt specifically with the question of keeping the staff informed. A few sample responses are quoted here as representative of the many similar statements submitted:

The superintendent's bulletin keeps teachers fully informed on all administrative matters. (Fourth Grade)

All policies concerning school activities are fully explained to the children and the teachers with reasons as to their necessity being given. (Sixth Grade)

Reports of meetings of school board and principals are sent to all teachers. (Senior High: Social Studies)

Superintendent's Newsletter informs teachers of administrative policies. (Senior High: Vocational Training)

The faculty is kept informed of administrative policies and practices through frequent bulletins and meetings. (Kindergarten)

All members of the staff are encouraged to know what makes the school system "tick." (Senior High: English)

A regular bulletin is issued weekly to members of the staff, briefing all members on various items of policy, existing and proposed. Proposed policy changes are discussed in advance with a cross-section of the staff. (Superintendent)

These typical statements show a strong awareness on the part of school people of the centrality of this issue in the democratic process. The free interchange of information is certainly a prerequisite to co-operative action. It is only through the medium of an enlightened group that we may hope to achieve the full and intelligent participation necessary to effective progress.

Administrative Aspects of the Standardized Testing Program

E. C. BOLMEIER

THE results from standardized tests provide a source of information which is most valuable for the administration of pupil personnel. Test scores are particularly indispensable in facilitating the guidance functions. They provide administrator, counselor, teacher, and pupil with the most objective evidence obtainable of the pupil's aptitudes, interests, adjustments, and achievements.

Of course, the effectiveness of the testing program will depend upon its appropriateness. A testing program which is suitable for one school system might be inappropriate for another school system. In order to assure appropriateness of the program, local attention should be given to such administrative matters as: (1) responsibility for the initiation and conduct of the program, (2) purposes of the tests, (3) areas for testing, (4) selecting the tests, (5) scheduling the administration of the tests, (6) personnel for testing, (7) scoring the tests, and (8) utilizing the test scores.

ALLOCATION OF RESPONSIBILITY

An effective standardized testing program does not evolve without the assumption of responsibility. Primarily, the administrative staff is responsible for the initiation and general framework of a testing program. In no instance, however, should the school administrator determine individually the specifics of the testing program. In all probability he would not have the specialized training in testing to qualify him to make wisely all the decisions pertaining to the testing program. Moreover, teachers and others would not likely give their greatest potential support to the program without being consulted and permitted to participate in the planning. The wise and tactful administrator would

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attempt to have teachers first express the need for the use of standardized tests, and then permit them to participate in planning the program.

In general, the plan for the testing program should be system-wide. Although principals of separate attendance units would have to assume much responsibility for the testing in their respective schools, it is desirable, for purposes of comparability, for the central office to assume certain responsibilities for the co-ordination of the testing among the different schools and grade levels. Where the line-and-staff type of administrative organization prevails, the responsibilities and authority pertaining to testing would presumably emanate from the central office and flow through designated channels, much in the same manner as for the instructional program of the school system.

The first step in the system-wide planning would properly be a consideration by the administrative staff and others of the relative emphasis of testing in the total educational and guidance program. Unless there is someone already on the staff with a practical and thorough understanding of the use of standardized tests, it might be well to engage consultant services for the initial planning, which in effect would be an in-service training program. The next step would likely be the appointment of a committee representing the administrative, technical, and teaching staffs to determine the scope of the initial undertaking in conformity to the philosophy, needs, and resources of the school system.

The administration would obviously be responsible for including in the budget the amount necessary to provide for the physical facilities and personnel necessary to carry out the plans of the testing program agreed upon. A specialist or specialists—depending upon the size of the school system—would be appointed to the staff. In many instances a teacher or someone else on the staff might qualify for this special work by pursuing proper study during summer session. The administrator, with the collaboration of his colleagues, would be responsible for defining the administrative and staff relationships of the testing director and technicians with other personnel of the school staff organization.

PURPOSES OF THE TESTING PROGRAM

There should be a mutual understanding among the school staff, pupils, and parents with respect to the purposes of the testing program. A well-defined philosophy of education by the school staff will suggest the purposes for which standardized tests are to be used. Since a sound philosophy of education is child centered, it may be concluded

that the main purpose of administering standardized tests is for pupil welfare.

One of the most direct benefits to the pupil from standardized tests is to show him and others concerned the strengths and weaknesses of the pupil so that he may be guided accordingly. It is inconceivable that an extensive program of testing is justified where no guidance program is conducted.

An indirect benefit to the pupil is the influence of standardized test scores in the improvement of the curriculum, teaching techniques, and materials.

It might be fortunate that many school boards are hard-headed and business-like enough to require their superintendent to adequately explain the intended purposes of a standardized testing program before approving the item in the school budget. Unless a reasonable school board can be convinced of the necessity for standardized testing, chances are that the purposes have not been thoroughly conceived even by the school staff. More "spade-work" not only on the part of the superintendent of school but also on the part of every member of the faculty would perhaps be advisable.

AREAS FOR TESTING

The number of areas for testing will depend upon the size of the school's total testing program. There is very little justification for testing in only one area. A minimum testing program would at least include the areas of scholastic aptitude and achievement. A more adequate program would also include the areas of interest and adjustment. In general, then, the four main areas for testing, in the order of their importance, would be (1) scholastic aptitude (intelligence), (2) achievement, (3) interest, and (4) adjustment. The emphasis on each one would obviously depend upon relative values in the total school program.

With the broadening scope of the curriculum, other areas, or at least more detailed areas, of testing may be envisioned. The Advisory Committee on Testing to the Educational Testing Service stated that among the possible new areas for testing were: "home and family living, consumer knowledge and skills, co-curricular activities—use of leisure time and hobby interests—ability to understand spoken English (listening ability), competency of communication, and measures of individual and group ability to operate in a democratic situation."¹

¹Paul E. Elicker. "Looking at a Testing Program for Secondary-School Youth." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. May, 1950. pp. 183-87.

SELECTING THE TESTS

The director of testing, the guidance director, or some other specialist familiar with best available tests for various purposes should have a leading part in the selection of the tests. The selections, however, should be made in co-operation with all other persons concerned with the purposes and uses of the tests. The teachers especially should be given the opportunity to participate in the selection of achievement tests to be administered to the pupils of their grades or classes.

In a minimum testing program the test selected for measuring intelligence would likely be one which affords a single score. The more well-known tests of this type include the (1) *Otis Group Intelligence Tests*, (2) *Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests*, and (3) *Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability*. For more functional testing of intelligence (aptitude) the trend is to test all the eight basic factors of intelligence: (1) comprehension, (2) reasoning, (3) numerical, (4) fluency, (5) memory, (6) visualization, (7) perceptual, and (8) co-ordination. A school desiring individual scores for each of the basic factors would select such tests as (1) *The American Council on Educational Psychological Examination*, (2) *California Test of Mental Maturity*, and (3) *Thurstone Tests of Primary Mental Abilities*.

The most economical way in which to test achievement in upper elementary- and junior-high grades is to select achievement test batteries, which are collections of a number of various subject-matter fields in a single booklet. Such tests usually measure achievement in reading vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic computation, geography, civics, and science. Among the most popular subject matter battery tests at the elementary-school level are (1) *Metropolitan Achievement Tests*, (2) *Progressive Achievement Tests*, (3) *Stanford Achievement Tests*, and (4) *Unit Scales of Attainment*.

At the high-school level, achievement is usually measured by separate subject tests. *The Co-operative Achievement Tests* and *The United States Armed Forces Institute Tests* (USAFI) are the most commonly selected single subject tests. *The Sone-Harry High School Achievement Tests* and *The Iowa High-School Content Tests* represent high-school achievement tests compiled in battery form.

In selecting standardized tests for measuring interests, consideration should be given to (1) *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, which provides scores for forty-seven specific occupations, and (2) *Kuder Preference Record* which indicates standing in nine general areas of interest: (1) mechanical, (2) computational, (3) scientific, (4) persua-

sive, (5) artistic, (6) literary, (7) musical, (8) social service, and (9) clerical.

Not many valid tests which are useful in the typical school system are available for measuring emotional adjustment. The usefulness of such tests is largely limited to clinical situations. The amount of specialized training required for their administration and interpretation generally precludes their use in all but the larger school systems which are able to provide such extensive psychological services. Of the tests used for appraising personal qualities the (1) *Bernreuter Personality Inventory* and (2) *Bell Adjustment Inventory* are most common.

SCHEDULING OF THE TESTING PROGRAM

The testing program should be conducted according to a planned schedule. The frequency of administering various tests will depend upon such factors as the availability of funds for test purposes, the time of personnel expected to do the work of administering and scoring the tests, and the purposes for which the tests are to be used.

In laboratory schools where test scores are used in connection with growth studies, group and individually administered intelligence tests may be taken by the pupil each year. In the typical school system, however, it is neither common nor necessary to administer intelligence tests so frequently. Ordinarily four different scholastic aptitude tests—one to be administered near the beginning of each school level: primary, intermediate, junior high, and senior high—are sufficient for a normal pupil. It might be necessary to also administer individual intelligence tests frequently to the atypical children. Some schools prefer to administer a reading-readiness test in lieu of an intelligence test for first-grade pupils.

In general, achievement tests should be administered more frequently than the scholastic aptitude tests. In some school systems the achievement tests are administered twice a school year—once near the beginning and once near the end of the school term—so that annual progress may be measured. Where less resources are available for testing purposes, the administration of achievement tests once a year—near the end of the school term—would be fairly adequate. There is not likely to be much difference in the scores of achievement tests taken near the end of the school term than from those derived from tests taken near the beginning of the following term.

Tests for measuring interests and various occupational aptitudes need not be administered before the time at which the pupil receives individual counseling. Usually such tests should be given at the time

when most pupils begin to think seriously of a vocational choice. That is usually near the beginning of the senior high-school period.

PERSONNEL FOR ADMINISTERING TESTS

For efficient administration of the testing program, it would be desirable to appoint a full-time, or at least a part-time test director who has a master's degree in psychology or education with specialized training in testing and statistics and a practical experience in the interpretation of test scores. Even though the test director may frequently administer certain tests for which the techniques for administration require special training, he could not be expected to administer all the tests in school systems of considerable size.

Therefore, the problem frequently arises as to who should administer the standardized tests. Some believe test technicians or others from the central office should administer all the tests in the various grades and schools of the school system. Such a plan is supported by the fact that the tests are more likely to be administered objectively and uniformly, and thereby result in more reliable scores. Others believe that such advantages are offset by a program in which the teachers administer the tests to pupils of their own classes. It is argued that pupils are more likely to attain optimum performance under their regular teachers. Moreover, the teachers gain some knowledge of their pupils' habits and abilities by observing their reactions in test situations. Many teachers appreciate the opportunity to administer the standardized achievement tests in order to help them appraise the tests with respect to their usefulness for classroom purposes. They rightfully expect, however, that their teaching loads be adjusted in accordance with time used for testing work.

Where teachers do participate in the administration of standardized tests it is essential that they be familiar with the tests and the directions for their administration. A common practice in familiarizing teachers with the directions for administering the tests is to have them take the tests themselves sometime in advance of testing the pupils.

Obviously, individually administered tests with detailed directions, such as the Stanford Binet Tests, should be administered by a psychologist or a technician trained for that purpose.

SCORING THE TESTS

It is highly important that the scoring of the tests be accurate. There is not much justification in meticulously observing the directions for administering the tests unless similar care be taken in the scoring of the tests.

Although there are some arguments for having the standardized tests scored by teachers, it has frequently been found that teachers are not so accurate scorers as are school clerks. This is particularly true where the teachers are compelled to do the scoring in addition to a full teaching schedule.

Accurate manual scoring has been greatly facilitated in recent years by the use of stenciled keys and other rapid-scoring devices. In the selection of tests it would be well to investigate the convenience of the scoring devices accompanying the tests. It should be realized that oversimplification by "self-scoring" devices could possibly detract from other features of the tests.

Where standardized testing is conducted on a big scale it may be advisable to have at least some of the tests scored by the International Business Machine (I.B.M.) This practice has been made more possible and economical with the use of separate answer sheets. The answer sheets such as are used with *The American Council on Education Psychological Examinations* and the *Co-operative Achievement Tests* lend themselves especially well to machine scoring. The cost of machine scoring is nominal through the scoring service of universities and publishers. Moreover, machine scoring has been found to be more accurate than manual scoring.

UTILIZING THE TEST SCORES

The value of the testing program is measured by its utilization. If the purposes of the standardized tests are to improve the instructional and counseling programs of the school, the test results should be used accordingly.

Administrators, supervisors, counselors, and teachers make different uses of the test results. It is significant, however, that the various uses are all directed toward one main purpose—for the benefit of the pupil. In fact, no purpose of the testing program has much justification which does not directly or indirectly benefit the pupil.

The more common administrative uses of the test results are for: (1) classification, grouping, and placement of pupils; (2) modification of programs of study of individual pupils; (3) evaluation of methods and materials of instruction; (4) reporting pupil progress to parents; and (5) reporting general school achievement to the community.

The main instructional or guidance uses of test results are to: (1) discover the scholastic aptitudes of pupils and to adapt instruction in accordance with their individual levels of ability; (2) determine the relative achievements of pupils and to counsel them in the necessity of achieving optimum progress in all phases of the curriculum; (3)

discover the exceptionally bright or high-achieving pupils and to provide a curriculum which will challenge their best efforts; and (4) diagnose individual pupil's weaknesses and to provide remedial treatment accordingly.

In emphasizing that the teacher or administrator must decide the ways in which the test results are to be utilized, the Co-operative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service suggests the following uses which may be made of the Co-operative tests:

1. Indication of areas of relative strength and weakness for each student, to provide objective information which may be used, in connection with other data, as a basis for individual guidance.
2. Provision of pre-study measures of ability and achievement, to assist in placing students in suitable classes and to insure each student's having the necessary prerequisites to study of a given course.
3. Measurement of achievement in a particular course, to supplement teachers' grades and serve as a partial basis for promotion.
4. Indication of individual growth in defined types of achievement from year to year.
5. Establishment and maintenance of uniform standards, in terms of objective measures, for admission, placement, promotion, certification, and graduation.

Test results are frequently misused. Common misuses of test results are to: (1) rate proficiency of teachers on the sole basis of test scores without controlling other determining factors; (2) issue scholastic marks or grades without the accompaniment of other evidence of pupil progress; (3) counsel pupils on the basis of isolated test scores without taking into consideration other significant information; and (4) prepare honor rolls or publicize in any other way the comparative scores of pupils.

Misuses of tests are minimized when a competent person is held responsible for the proper interpretation of test results. This is where the trained and experienced specialist can make his greatest contribution to the success of the testing program. Through a good program of in-service training, teachers and others can be made aware as to the limitations in the uses of test scores.

Test scores are most useful when they are systematically recorded and arrayed in comprehensive order. Test scores should be entered on the cumulative records in terms which are meaningful and comparable. Scores of aptitude and achievement tests are frequently presented in profile fashion for those who must make quick interpretations.

If group achievement on standardized tests is to be reported to the board of education and others who have not had special training in testing, but are concerned about the progress of their schools, the reports should be in non-technical terms and simple meaningful graphs.

A More Comprehensive and Significant Marking System

IRVIN A. KELLER

THERE is at present considerable evidence of dissatisfaction with prevailing systems of marking and reporting the progress of students. This can be seen in the attempts to discontinue the use of marks and to substitute the other types of reports that are now being tried in a number of schools. Although there are a few apparent trends, particularly in the elementary schools, it is uncertain as to what results these current experiments will yield. Whether or not any widespread changes will take place in recording and reporting work done in the secondary school will depend upon whether or not a more satisfactory system is developed to replace present marking systems, or to what extent those now in use are improved.

Most of us are aware of the fact that much heterogeneity exists in the types of marks given in the various schools and the bases for determining them. A quick survey of those most used will help to emphasize the lack of agreement concerning the relative merit they hold.

Marks based on quality of attainment have furnished one of the earlier and most widely used systems. The percentage system, which has received much criticism and has been abandoned widely, is still used in a number of secondary schools. The conversion of percentages into symbols is an attempt to disguise the older method, but has not changed the basis for the marks thus given. The question, "per cent of what", reveals the weakness to which teachers and administrators object that has led to the development of other bases of grading.

MARKING SYSTEM IN GENERAL USE

Reporting by comparative rank has considerably changed the basis for arriving at marks, but it has failed to receive universal approval. The principal marks used under this scheme are symbols of one form

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or another revealing the comparative rank of the students, reports showing the students' standing in the class distribution, and percentile scores.

Achievement reports based on mastery of definite goals prescribed has replaced marks in a few schools. Students are required to attain 100 per cent proficiency on a mastery test, and the progress is reported stating the amount of work thus mastered and the date completed. The grade equivalent or level determined by a standardized test comprises a part of the report of the student's work in a few schools.

Progress reports attempting to base the grade on both effort and native ability has added another concept to the bases used for determining marks.¹ The marks given are in terms of accomplishment quotients, or as "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory." The merit of these reports is that they are individualized by comparing the students' achievements with their abilities.

In determining grades by the curve of normal distribution, a certain per cent of students receive A's, B's, C's, D's and E's or similar symbols. The percentage for determining the number of students to receive each of these marks varies some among the different schools using this scheme.²

The standard deviation or sigma score derived from the normal probability curve is the basis for arriving at marks in some of the larger high schools.³

A more complete meaning is furnished by several schools by means of definitions and interpretations accompanying the grades reported to parents.⁴

A more recent attempt is to replace marks by letters to parents written by teachers in some instances, or by the students themselves under the supervision of the teachers.⁵ A close examination of such letters reveals that the reports are sometimes vague and do not give sufficient information concerning the actual quality of achievement of the students, while in others the use of such words as excellent, superior, average, below average, etc., implies that comparative ranking is still a matter in the basis for this type of reporting.

Although there are a number of variations of the various types of marking systems described above, they are believed to be the ones

¹ Billett, Roy O. *Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1940, pp.648-649.

² Umstadt, J.G. *Secondary-School Teaching*. New York: Ginn and Co. 1944, p.420.

³ *Ibid.*, p.419.

⁴ Billett, Roy O. *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*. Washington, D.C: United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

⁵ Billett, *op.cit.*, p.452-453.

most widely used. The purposes of the many marks used have been summarized by Billett as follows:⁴

1. Keeping parents informed of pupils progress
2. Furnishing a basis for promotion
3. Furnishing a basis for graduation
4. Motivating pupils
5. Furnishing a basis for the awarding of honors
6. Furnishing a basis for guidance in the election of subjects
7. Furnishing a basis for guidance in college recommendation
8. Furnishing a basis for determining extent of participation in extracurricular activities
9. Furnishing a basis for guidance in recommendation for employment
10. Furnishing a basis for awarding a credit for quality
11. Furnishing a basis for research

LITTLE LIKELIHOOD OF DISCONTINUANCE

Although the different marks used have received much criticism, it seems improbable that any system of reporting is likely to be developed that will entirely replace some form of school marks. There are several good reasons why such an assumption might be made. The purposes enumerated above seem too important to discard; hence, they must be incorporated in any plan substituted, which creates a practical problem that will tend to lead to the same criticisms now being made of school marks. The fact that colleges ask for grades on transcripts submitted for entrance is another obstacle in the elimination of grades, and it is doubtful that they will deviate much from this practice since entrance itself in many schools depends upon the grades made in secondary schools. Also, the recent emphasis of the concept that "grades do count" expressed in articles and speeches by educators and employers is not compatible with the thinking that we should do away with school marks.

A careful study of the many criticisms of grading and marking the work of students reveals considerable misunderstanding and careless thinking. Much of what is said is true. In many instances too much value of an extrinsic nature is placed upon grades as a means of motivating students in their work, and too little of the students' attention is called to the need of engaging in the learning activities assigned and the personal benefits to be received by the outcomes. No well-educated teacher would argue that motivation through fear of receiving a low or failing mark is a psychologically sound procedure. That marks given by teachers are often unreliable can be easily proved. These and most other objections, however, reveal a weakness that is far more fundamental than the weaknesses in the marking systems;

⁴ Billett, *Ibid.*, 449.

namely, the weaknesses in the training and judgement of teachers. Changing the method of reporting or the discarding of school marks will not solve the fundamental problem or help to alleviate it very much. Hence, unless we find sufficient reason and proof for eliminating most of the purposes now inherent in the giving of grades, it seems more realistic and logical that the best approach to the problem would be to educate and train teachers better how to use a sound and improved basis of grading.

WHAT IS A SOUND BASIS FOR GRADING?

This leads to the question, "What is a sound basis for grading the work of students?" Most educators will agree that learning is far more efficient when done under as near real-life conditions as possible. If this principle is true, then it follows that evaluation in school that is as near as possible to evaluation in real life situations is also more efficient. When a student leaves school and applies for his first job, he will find a real life evaluation made of him. He will realize almost at once that he lives in a competitive society, which may or may not be in accord with the concept he got from the evaluation he received in school. His credentials will be evaluated qualitatively and quantitatively. What he can do, his capabilities, and his habits of work will be carefully considered for any position of importance. In short, the evaluation he receives will be on both a comparative and an individualized basis. Upon receiving a position, his worth and consideration for advancement will continue to be judged in the same comparative and individualized manner. Should not evaluation in school be compatible with evaluation in life? Would it not be good training to be educated to such evaluation while in school?

In the past the various school marks mentioned have, for the most part, been based on a comparative basis, or an individualized basis, with some schools combining the two bases as a means of determining a single mark. Educators are divided as to which of the three plans is the best. Dissatisfaction with the strictly comparative system has been voiced, while the individualized plans have received their share of objections and have failed to prove satisfactory in many schools where they have been tried. Several attempts have been made to combine the comparative and individualized schemes as a basis for a single mark, such as the achievement quotient, *satisfactory* and *unsatisfactory* reports based on progress in comparison to ability, *et al.* Despite the possibilities of motivating individual students, the achievement quotient has been criticised as being vague in distinguishing the quality of work done, and as being mechanically diffi-

cult and complicated to administer. Individualized reports of *satisfactory* and *unsatisfactory* have received similar criticisms and have not succeeded in harmonizing accomplishment and ability in determining a single mark.

Although these attempts have received many criticisms, they do contain values that merit consideration. Besides knowing how well a student is doing, the quality of his work, *etc.*, the teacher, the student, and the parents should be concerned about whether or not a student is doing as well as he or she is capable of doing. It is difficult to see how a teacher can properly provide for individual differences or teach most efficiently without being so concerned. Parents do not appreciate vague reports, and are, or should be, interested in the working habits of their children. An alert young lawyer and his wife, upon receiving a report for their son that showed good grades and above average achievement on a standardized achievement test, proceeded to ask the teacher whether or not the boy had done as well as he was capable of doing, and showed more concern about this matter than the fact that the boy had done superior work in his class. Progress studies of class achievement reveal an astonishing fact to teachers when they study the percentile scores in correlation with the percentile ability scores. It is not at all uncommon to find that the students in the upper quartile are comparatively more retarded than those in the lower quartile. The problem growing out of this matter that faces teachers and administrators is to find a system of grading that adds greater significance to the marks given and gives a more complete picture of the student's work, yet is practical in administering.

COLLEGE HIGH SCHOOL'S SYSTEM

In trying to develop a more significant and comprehensive system of grading that retains the advantages of the comparative and individualized schemes already mentioned and is practical as to administration, the State College High School of Cape Girardeau, Missouri, started using a dual system of marking seven years ago and has continued to do so with increasing success. Under this plan the student receives a grade of A, B, C, D, or E for his achievement as it compares relatively with that of the other members in the class on the basis of the quality and quantity of work in the particular subject without consideration of his capability or any extraneous factors. The mark for achievement thus determined is then rated as satisfactory by an "S" or unsatisfactory by a "U" by comparing it with the capabilities of the student as revealed by an intelligence test, a general achievement test, his aptitude in the subject, and any exceptional personal factors such as his physical con-

dition, necessary work outside of school, *etc.*, if such merit the teacher's consideration. A student of average capabilities making a "C" receives an achievement rating of "S", while another student with superior capabilities making a "C" receives an achievement rating of "U".

To understand the plan better, let us see more completely how it operates in actual practice. The first essential is a testing program with an intelligence test and a standardized general achievement test as the minimum. Aptitude tests in special fields such as music, art, and industrial arts will improve the testing program, but, if these cannot be had, the teacher judges the students' efforts and abilities in these fields by careful observation. The tests are administered the first week of school, scored, results compiled, and filed for the teacher's use as quickly as possible. All but the administering of the tests is done by student teachers doing practice teaching in College High School under the direction of the supervisors.

Each teacher studies the range and distribution of abilities and achievement levels in his or her class, which is revealing and often astonishing to the teacher. In addition to considerable variation in abilities, differences of five and six grade levels of achievement in a class sometimes exist. What are the purposes of this study? The first consideration is the planning of the work for the students and the differentiation of assignments when practical. Students with superior ability and achievement are provided additional assignments with work on a higher level requiring greater reasoning and assimilation. The study gives the teacher an idea as to what quality of work she can expect from the class, whether the class is an average class, above average, or below average which tends to increase the reliability of the marks the teacher assigns. As the work in the course proceeds, the teacher studies each student individually, noting his intelligence rating, grade level of achievement, effort, health, and personal factors that might affect the student's work. This is not done to prescribe a grade for a student but to determine what grade the student should be capable of making. The performance of the student will determine the mark for achievement. The work of the student is evaluated incidentally as well as formally. The daily work of the student, unit test scores, and the examination grade are weighted equally in determining the student's relative standing for the term's work. These provide the basis for giving a mark of A, B, C, D, or E. After the work of the student is thus marked, the teacher studies each student's mark individually in comparison with the student's ability, previous achievement, effort, and any other significant factors that might determine whether or not he

has done as well as these conditions permit with a reasonable amount of effort. If the student has worked up to what these indices indicate can be expected, the student is given a second mark of "S" denoting that the achievement in the course has been satisfactory. If the student has not worked up to his or her capabilities, a "U" is given showing that the achievement has been unsatisfactory and that the student is capable of doing better work with a reasonable amount of effort. This is the individualized phase of the dual marking system, and the basis for determining both of the dual marks is explained in a note at the bottom of the report sent to the parents. Students with superior or excellent capabilities who receive "C's" and "B's" respectively are given "U's". A student may receive "S's" in some subjects, and "U's" in others. Students with below average capabilities who make "D's" are given "S's" for their achievement rating. All "E's" are considered unsatisfactory on the basis that the achievement for the particular grade placement is not sufficient to merit credit. Credit is given for all grades above an "E" regardless as to whether or not the achievement rating is satisfactory or unsatisfactory.

Several advantages of this plan of grading have been observed in its use. The dual marks make grading both comparative and individualized which is compatible with evaluation in every-day life. The mark for the achievement in the class reveals the comparative value of the student's work as it ranks with the work of other students, and the achievement rating, "S" or "U", individualizes the mark by comparing it with the student's capabilities. Hence, it co-ordinates with and helps facilitate the provisions for individual differences.

Greater significance is added to the grades given. Average work denoted by a "C" and an "S" for a student of average capabilities gives a different picture than a "C" and a "U" received by a student of very high capabilities. This fact is still more clearly exemplified by a student with below average capabilities who receives a "D" and an "S", and a student of very high capabilities who receives a "D" and a "U". In general, the one type of student is usually found to be a dependable individual with good working habits and doing about "his best", while the other type is inclined to loaf, has poor working habits and is less dependable. The one group of students will learn more if given additional time, but time will not appreciably affect the work of the other group. Too, it reveals whether it might have been received largely because of the innate ability and general background of the student. Often single marks given by teachers are a better measure of the relative innate ability and general background of a student than of the progress made in the course. The factors concerned in whether or

not students work up to their capabilities may be of increased importance when they are applicants for different types of work and when they enter college. A follow-up study of College High School graduates who entered Southeast Missouri State College the past six years reveals that for the students who have been put on probation because of low grades there is a much higher correlation with the number of "U's" received in College High School than with the intelligence scores of the students.

The dual report furnishes a simple but improved report to parents. Whether or not a student has good working habits or habits of loafing is readily revealed. As yet no parents of students in the school have objected to knowing this fact. The implied information concerning the student's abilities has been wholesomely received. Parents seem to appreciate the frankness of such reports as much as a father and mother do when informed by the doctor that their child is overweight or underweight. More parental concern is shown. As example, one father whose son had received mostly average grades of "C" rated by "U's" informed his son that if he didn't "get down to work" he would be taken out of school to work on the farm. The boy did not make another grade less than a "B". As the parents of our students are becoming better educated to the principles of the dual grading system, the better effect it seems to have.

The report is more revealing to the student. When properly explained it furnishes an incentive to both dull and bright students. A mark "S" and a mark rated "U" are both pointed out as being complimentary. The one that the student is complimented for his good working habits; the other, that he or she has potential ability to do better work. The latter type needs to be counseled as to the importance of doing one's best. Students are led to see that teachers give as much attention and praise to students doing their best work as for high grades, and that they are not satisfied until each does his best regardless of ability.

The plan has proved to be of value in both educational and vocational guidance. This can be illustrated in the case of our former student who thought that he wanted to be a doctor. The boy received "C's" rated "S" in his high-school math classes. Before he was counseled as to his vocation choice, the boy came to the principal's office with a question that revealed considerable self-guidance. "I have been making "C's" in algebra with "S's", he said. "This means that it is about the best that my teachers think that I can do, and I know I have been working pretty hard to get them. I've heard that you have to be pretty good in math to be a doctor. Don't you think that I had better

plan to be something else?" A study of the boy's capabilities showed that he had probably made a sound and wise decision, and that it was very doubtful that he had the ability to succeed in medical school. On the other hand, it has been revealed to some students that they have the ability to do work of which they had been doubtful, and that it was their working habits, not their abilities, that were actually causing the doubt.

One of the problems of administrations, principals, and supervisors is to get their teachers to study their students. The dual system of grading requires and facilitates this matter and furnishes a basis for more effective teaching. Teachers tend to put forth more effort to get the best from each student. Each student must be studied individually; consequently, teachers learn to know their students much better. The superior student is less likely to be neglected by the teacher devoting more time to the below average and average student in the class, and the differentiation of assignments provides work to meet more nearly the needs of all the members of the class. This is highly desirable and is definitely in line with the principle of teaching that provides for individual differences.

It has been found that the reliability of marks given is increased by the dual grading scheme. Teachers become cognizant of grading too high or too low when the marks are compared with the students' capabilities. Weaknesses in marking are often unrevealed by the single marking system simply because such a system does not require a study of the marks given. Such weaknesses should be revealed, not ignored.

These observations have revealed that the dual grading system has definite advantages over the single marking systems. The fact that student teachers handle the scheme quite satisfactorily under supervision and get a better insight as to the basis for preparing and evaluating learning activities tends to show that the administration of the dual marking plan is not difficult. A careful study of the plan reveals that it is compatible with the basic principles of teaching—particularly, the principle of providing for individual differences. In addition to the testing program mentioned as a prerequisite, it is essential that students, teachers, and parents be educated to the principles and basis for determining the dual marks. When this is done, grades have more meaning to all concerned. The administration feels that the dual grading is beyond the experimental stage in the high school, and that, with continuous attention to improving the methods of administering the plan, it will prove of increasing value in the future.

Ability Grouping

EDWARD W. COOKE

HORNELL High School has been experimenting with a three way program for students of low reading ability and another for the students of the highest scholastic ability in addition to the usual academic program, for about twenty years. These varied programs are followed only in the basic subjects, *i.e.*, English, social studies, elementary science, and mathematics.

Hornell is a typical small industrial city of about 16,000. The high school has about 800 pupils in the upper four grades housed in a fairly modern building. There are 50 class room teachers and an administrative and guidance staff of seven including a guidance director who is also vice-principal, an attendance officer, a testing supervisor, a part-time nurse, part-time doctor, librarian, and principal. We offer courses in the elective fields such as industrial arts (four teachers); homemaking (three teachers); business (six teachers); art (1 teacher); music (2 teachers); in addition to the usual physical education, health, foreign languages (French and Latin), mathematics, and science.

Our program started out about two decades ago with a class in business English and "problems of democracy" and has grown until now we offer a four-year sequence in English and social studies and year courses in general science and mathematics. We think that our program has met favor with parents and pupils because we have always insisted that it be a voluntary program. No pupil is obliged to join any ability group unless he and his parents are willing. Our Guidance Department, along with a trained testing supervisor who has been engaged in the last four years, has recommended to the pupils where they should go and in most cases they have willingly followed this advice. Where this plan has failed it is usually because the authorities have insisted that the groupings be rigid or the officials were not always insistent to see that no child was forced into some grouping. There must

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be a completely honest and sympathetic administration and supervision. The faculty must be in sympathy with the plan—at least those teachers who are to work with the unusual people. It is imperative for all concerned to realize that scholastic ability is a highly specialized ability and that many children who have limited scholastic ability may, and often do, have other abilities that are valuable to our modern economy. The parents of these children pay taxes and they are entitled to a schooling on their own level.

In the past we have thought that the introduction of vocational courses, homemaking, and business subjects would take care of these people; but, under actual practice, we are driving thousands of these children out of school because we insist that they must pass the college entrance type of English, social studies, mathematics, and science before they are eligible to take these vocational subjects. Until we devise some courses in the basic subjects that are suitable for these people, we can expect large numbers of them to leave our schools every year before graduation.

In Hornell, because we have no better courses of study, we are using the syllabi put out by the New York State Education Department, and eliminating the more abstract and the less useful material. We use teaching methods that we have found effective for these people, such as much review and repetition, changing the method of presentation many times during the class period—the span of attention of these people is very limited—and giving as much individual attention to each one as possible. Under sympathetic teachers we find that these children are harder workers and more appreciative students than our truly academic pupils. Also, they are not discipline problems when they have work that they can do successfully.

We do not segregate these pupils in anything except their classes. In sports, homeroom, social activities—the things which the students count important—there is no segregation. In our school there does not seem to be any feeling of inferiority on the part of the non-academic students, possibly because they know that they can go out in the world and be as successful as the academic graduates. If schools consistently eliminate these people, in time there is bound to be so much resentment that high schools as we know them now will go the way of the academy.

We have had good holding power in our high school for a number of years—about 80 per cent of those who start as freshman stay until graduation. We think that our differentiated program is the chief factor in this, but there are other factors that are important, such as a complete staff sympathetic to the idea, a fine guidance department under

the leadership of a vice-principal, and a faculty that is socially conscious. The principal is probably the key figure, but he must have the whole-hearted co-operation of all concerned, if the plan is to succeed.

Some principals seem to be worried about the marking of these non-academic pupils. We find that these pupils' marks tend to cluster around 70-75 per cent (we must use numerical marks as a Regents requirement) just as do the academic students, but it is very unusual for any of these slower students to get very high marks even though the work is more attractive for them. In other words, that situation takes care of itself. If an academic student fails a subject and our tests indicate, as they usually do, that the student should be taking the non-academic work, we give the pupil a choice. He may choose to go ahead with the advanced class if he changes to the non-academic work, but if he chooses to stay with the academic work, he must repeat the subject.

There is one caution that I would suggest to those principals who are planning to start this or a similar plan. They should explain this plan to Parent-Teachers Associations, service clubs, and other adult groups, warning that some of the graduates will not meet the ordinary college entrance graduate standards, and that parents are not to expect such proficiency. If people object to the plan, they can be asked pointedly, "Would you prefer that the students be eliminated from school opportunities altogether as it is done in most schools?" Some may object to the plan because the slower students are allowed to stay in school even though they do not meet the required scholastic "standard." Some will object because these students should be "made" to do the academic work. Some will object because the slower students may "loaf." Some will object because the practice is not "democratic." It all depends on the philosophy of the principal and his advisors. I can assure them from many years of experience that all of these fears and doubts are groundless.

If principals try this plan, they will find that the teachers will be delighted to have a chance to teach segregated children. They will be able to plan their work better. The development of new techniques will give new interest to the older teachers who may have gotten in a rut. The problem of meeting individual differences will be a challenge to the new teachers.

With the plan we use with about 800 students, we ordinarily have two sections of non-academic pupils in each year of each of the major subjects, *i.e.*, English and social studies. On that basis, any school of 350-400 pupils or more should be able to have one section in each year and subject. Smaller schools may be obliged to try the plan with

differentiated teaching and assignments within the classroom. This is more difficult and only the most capable teachers will be able to make adequate progress. In some small high schools, the school district may be willing to foot the expense of small classes for the non-academic students. It is my firm conviction that no school district can afford to neglect these children.

With all this discussion about non-academic students, we have not made a clear definition of who these children are. In our school they are the pupils, for the most part, who are not going on to college because of financial conditions or ability. We set up the program with the idea that the non-academic work is terminal scholastic work and is designed to serve the interests of those who are to finish their formal schooling at high school graduation. All others are potentially college entrance students. Only about 30 per cent of the total graduating class go on to institutions of higher learning, but there is a large group which uses and is trying the college entrance work for social reasons. This is unfortunate, since these children on graduation find that they are not prepared for anything definite. The language and mathematics skills, which are the only things they have to prepare them for entrance into industrial and business life, are no better for the most part than they were at the end of the eighth grade. The "culture" that they may have gotten from their college entrance English and social studies is so fragmentary and "hammered in" that it is doubtful that it will lead to a continued interest in really cultural things. In my experience it more often leads to a smirking denial of anything that is cultural. In schools where no attempt is made to serve the non-academic pupils, there is this dissatisfied group to add to the frustrated college entrance high school graduates. We are trying hard to reduce the number of those attempting college entrance who do not have any chance to go to college, but tradition and social prestige are hard to combat in any community.

In our opinion, any school that attempts to serve the non-academic students should in time make a similar effort to serve the brightest or scholarship students. Otherwise the school may find that the weight of the non-academic students will tip the school toward a general lowering of standards.

With a well-developed program in the basic subjects for the brightest students, there are many opportunities for the teachers to challenge these bright people to do work that would ordinarily be possible only in the best colleges. They may be encouraged to read and explore materials that should make them especially capable for the scholarship examinations which are becoming more popular every year.

Our experience with these classes for the highest children has been limited to the last three or four years and we are not ready to form any fixed opinions about their worth at this time. Nevertheless, we are encouraged, and we are sure that it provides a good balance for the efforts put on the non-academic pupils. We have noticed that scholastic morale has improved since we have started the classes for the brightest. It has given them the recognition they need.

One of the problems that is difficult to solve with both groups is to find teachers who are suitable and trained for these specialized groups. Hardly any teacher training institution is training teachers for this work. When we choose any new teacher for these unusual people, we try to get one who is temperamentally adaptable to the new situation and one who is sympathetic to the problems of the group in question. We suggest procedures that we have found to be helpful. I am sure that these teachers also get help from others on the staff who are teaching the special groups. But this lack of trained teachers is one of the bottlenecks in the progress of the plan. Another is the lack of textbooks and syllabi.

If enough schools would try a plan similar to this, in time the colleges would prepare teachers for these special groups, the book companies would supply textbooks, and the state education departments will write syllabi that would be used as guides. If this would happen, we are convinced that there would be a rebirth of interest in secondary education both in the schools and in the communities. The nation is not too well satisfied with its secondary schools as they are now. The evidence of that is the deluge of articles in practically every magazine criticizing some phase of our secondary schools, or telling about individual schools which are doing a fine job, and implying that the others are not.

If this plan is tried and it succeeds, it is likely that modern practices, such as better guidance and work experience plans, and new subjects, such as a family living course, fall naturally into the picture and are willingly supported by your community. It is hard for us to understand how a guidance program can work effectively when there is no place to put the student who is not succeeding in his academic work, or what to do with the child who is precocious and needs the stimulation of similar bright minds.

We do not contend that this is a new or novel idea. It has been tried many times and often failed. Where it has failed it is usually because the principal or superintendent was not wholly sympathetic to the idea or the students were compelled to go in to the grouping in which the staff or teachers had placed them.

An Experiment in Increasing Speed in Reading

B. EVERARD BLANCHARD

INTRODUCTION

HOW can we best improve our rate in reading without sacrificing accuracy in comprehension? To what extent are standardized reading tests reliable? From what sources can a student increase his abilities in reading? How best can we assist the slow reader?

These and many other questions have been asked by teachers, supervisors, and administrators interested in improving reading instruction.

The typical student of education has undoubtedly run across the following statement: "In the early stages of learning to read, it is essential for the child to develop the habit of working systematically from left to right in reading lines of printed words, and in dealing with new words, to acquire the habit of studying them from left to right, 'jumping quickly back to the beginning of the word, and progressing across it' from left to right. Failure to acquire these systematic habits of dextral progression may cause difficulty in learning to read. Looking at a word from right to left, for example, may cause reversals, such as the reading of 'was' for 'saw.' It is important, therefore, for the teacher to guide the development of correct eye movements from the beginning of reading instruction."¹

From this citation and proponents of the same theory, pupils in our public schools have been taught reading instruction. Theoretically, the left to right version of teaching reading has predominated. Some educators have even progressed to the point of insisting, that this is the *only correct* manner in which to guide the child.

The theory of teaching reading from left to right appears to hold

¹Arthur I. Gates, *Educational Psychology*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 3rd Edition, 1948, p. 343.

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its own until we begin to examine what other countries may be doing and then the bottom drops out. For example, in Japan and China, reading instruction is taught by progressing from the upper right-hand corner, the eye descending vertically in the column to the bottom, then reversing the eye back to the upper column, the eye descending again, reading columns from right to left. In reading Hebrew, one reads from right to left, reversing the eye back to the right side of the page to continue. In other words, Hebrew reading is directly opposite the conventional American pattern.

It is estimated that more than three fourths of all impressions come through the eye.³ Most of us fail to realize the tremendous amount of precise, rapid, and co-ordinated muscular activity involved in reading. The external muscles must move the eyes so that they follow along each line. This is done in a series of jumps, for the region of clear vision is short. The eye must then jump back to the beginning of the next line. If difficulties are encountered, other movements are added. At the same time, constant effort is necessary to keep the two eyes exactly centered on the same point with every movement.³

It has been shown by careful studies that poor readers invariably have more efficient eye movements than good readers. Two theories have been proposed to explain this fact. One theory is that the poor eye movements are the causes of the slow reading; the other theory is that the poor reading is basic and that the eye movements are merely a symptom. Regardless of which theory proves to be correct, it has been found that attention directed toward the improvement of eye movements results in remarkable increases in the speed and accuracy of reading.⁴

If we assume that the previous statement just mentioned possesses validity, we may, in the same breath, reject the theory that the *only correct* method of instruction in teaching reading is from left to right. It would be more precise to state that reading instruction is a relative matter depending upon geographical location and that there is no one method universally accepted.

While the basic method of teaching reading from left to right with regard to eye movements has remained more or less constant, recent emphasis has been directed toward making reading more meaningful and purposeful. In addition, objectives in reading stress the needs and interests of students, materials and methods of instruction, and procedures used in appraising reading activities. Broadly speaking,

³C. E. Turner, *Personal and Community Hygiene*. St. Louis: The C. V. Mosby Co., Eighth Edition, 1946, p. 155.

³*Ibid.*, pp. 163-64.

⁴John J. B. Morgan, *Child Psychology*. New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., Third Edition, 1946, pp. 339-341.

we might suggest that the insistence of research in reading has dealt primarily with the student, aims and objectives necessary to inculcate good reading habits, while the arrangement of the printed matter to be read has escaped close scrutiny.

Since reading activities consume a large amount of the typical pupil's time in school by which knowledge is learned and activities are guided, teachers would undoubtedly welcome a method that would decrease the time consumed in various kinds of worktype comprehensions.

EXPERIMENTATION WITH INVERSION TYPE READING

Prior to explaining a novel reading technique, we might reiterate the statement, that one who is interested in new methods of teaching is often looked upon by his colleagues as a "crack-pot." Guetzkow, in describing the purpose of a conference on research in classroom processes, states: "...that this type of meeting allowed those interested in research in teaching to give each other the emotional support needed to withstand these social pressures from colleagues who believe that research on one's classroom processes indicates one is a self-admitted failure as a teacher."

An experimental reading and testing program sponsored at this base with 52 military personnel co-operating revealed a new procedure in reading was just as effective, and superior in some cases, to the conventional type of reading from left to right.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there might be any significant differences between the conventional method of reading from left to right and a method termed "inversion reading," as proposed by the writer.

The term "inversion reading," as defined in this investigation, refers to reading all even lines, e. g., (2, 4, 6, etc.), from right to left, with words reversed, but the spelling remaining similar as in conventional reading from left to right. All odd lines (1, 3, 5, etc.) are read from left to right. An example of inversion reading is as follows:

While the glass-bottom and photo-sub boat ride is the inter-
to persons 600,000 of upwards draws that magnet known nationally
Silver Springs every year, the 50-minute thrill ride five miles
-a outstanding is "Cruiser Jungle" the aboard River Silver down
mong the several other attractions. On this ride, you will board
waters crystal-clear over you carry will that boat speed open an
for nearly five miles through scenery varying from dense-tropical
-ed the bordering parkway landscaped handsomely to lands jungle
ges of many of the springs.

²Harold Guetzkow, *Summary of Conference on Research in Classroom Processes*, Rackham Building, University of Michigan, April 29, 1950, p. 2.

To follow through on this research study, the 52 military personnel were divided into two groups; namely, the experimental and the control group. Each member of the experimental group was interviewed personally and informed about the inversion method of reading from left to right, then allowing the eye to drop down at the end of the line and proceeding to read from right to left. The purpose of such a method of reading was explained; namely, that it was an attempt to provide greater continuity in reading words, sentences, and phrases by eliminating the necessity of reversing the eye back to the left side of the page when completing each line. In addition, by omitting the reversible factor, that of reverting the eye back to the left side of the page upon completing each line, a reader might decidedly increase his rate of reading printed matter.

The control group was also oriented. They were informed that they would read a short narrative, no mention being made of the inversion method. The reading would be printed in the conventional manner, that is, reading lines from the usual left to right basis. The purpose of this reading as explained to the control group was to arouse interest in reading, secure meaning from the printed word, to encourage the ability to see relationships between ideas, and to secure relevant facts. A stop watch was used for both groups, recording the time consumed for the reading and the testing period. The military personnel were carefully equated according to age, scores achieved on the AGCT, and educational training.

One month later, the two groups, experimental and control, were subjected to a re-reading of the same material initially read and the same objective test. During the thirty-day interval, the experimental group was given practice reading exercises based on the inversion method. The control group was afforded no reading material whatsoever. At the conclusion of one month, the experimental group was given the same reading it formerly had taken, while the control group was introduced to the inversion reading plan with the purpose of such reading explained to them.

Results of Testing

In reviewing the relationships between rates in reading time, testing time, and the scores achieved, we may observe the following:

With regard to the mean difference between the experimental group and the control group in the initial reading trial, a mean difference of 12.7 points favor the latter group. It is possible that the experimental group experienced some difficulty in the perceptual and recognition span engendered by inversion reading, hence the longer period of time.

Applying the *t*-test of significance to the mean difference of 12.7 points, the chances of obtaining a *t* as large as 1.289 are about 20 out of a 100, or we might say, that it falls between the 20 per cent and 30 per cent level of significance. We might, therefore, conclude that the difference found could easily have occurred by chance.

In comparing the final rate in reading time between the experimental and the control group, we find a mean difference of 25.5 points benefiting the experimental group. A *t* of 2.589 is considered significant at the 2 per cent level.

It is interesting to note that the mean difference between the initial rate of reading and the final rate in reading of the control group was 27.2 points. With a *t* of 2.762 significant at the 1 per cent level, the difference cannot reasonably be accounted for by chance.

No significant differences are discerned between the experimental and the control group with regard to either the time taken for the testing period, or the scores achieved on the test.

In brief, with proper guidance and practice in reading, the inversion plan appears to increase the rate of speed in reading as contrasted to the conventional pattern of reading instruction.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Assuming that repeated observations among a larger number of cases bear out statistically significant differences, we might envisage such a procedure to be of considerable value in the following instances.

The Braille code for the blind is carried on by reading raised points by fingers moving from left to right, then reversing the fingers to the left side of the page and proceeding again toward the right. By the use of inversion reading, the reversible factor would automatically be eliminated, thereby providing greater continuity and less time in reading comprehension.

In typing, we write from left to right as in our conventional reading and the carriage must be reversed from right to left to continue typing. A typewriter subscribing to the inversion technique would be so constructed so that when the carriage reached the margin on the right-side of the paper being typed, depressing a key located conveniently for the finger would automatically lower to the proper spacing required and typing would continue from right to left. Such a device would be a time-saver for stenographers who handle paper work in large school systems, corporations, and business enterprises.

An Experiment in Reading Improvement

CHARLES E. BISH

PERHAPS there is no more complex pattern of skills involved in any area of achievement than in reading. Drives expressed by interest, attitudes, and personal goals play an important role. Emotional stability, intelligence, experimental background, and the physical characteristics of vision are most significant. Habits resulting from the necessity of dealing with a variety of classroom assignments are frequently responsible for the pupil's current level of reading skill.

However, the extensive research which has been and is being carried on in this field has been most helpful in bringing some measure of orderliness to the problem, especially by the Armed Forces and privately run reading clinics at the college and university level. In addition, many industries have become interested and have assisted in the development of promising techniques and procedures.

During the past three years, the over-all reading problem has been studied at the McKinley High School. An attempt has been made through classroom experimentation to adapt some of the more promising procedures and techniques to the specific needs of secondary-school pupils. Obviously in the classroom there are many uncontrollable variables. Pupils do not react alike to the teachers. Distractions intrude that are unpreventable and unforeseen. Yet there is a need to know how certain procedures tend to influence the learning effectiveness of pupils in just this situation.

Prior to February, 1951, a study of the literature, some limited experimentation with a few pupils, a survey of several on-going programs at the adult level, a study of local clinical procedures and interviews with reading specialists and experts in optometry, where locally available, were made by the McKinley High School. This in-service training resulted in the following tentative concepts and conclusions which formed a basis for initiating experimentation.

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1. Seeing is learned; therefore, ineffective use of the eye, particularly for near-point reading, can often be corrected by retraining. This involves eliminating poor habits and the reteaching of skills learned earlier, or formed because of the need to deal with inappropriate reading materials, often at the frustration level.

2. Most pupils read at a level of effectiveness below their potential ability. The implication seems clear that some training should be continuous for all pupils through high school.

3. Forced reading at the frustration level appears to be responsible for a substantial number of emotional disturbances observed in high school and is reflected in below-standard behavior.

4. Three groups of pupils within the total secondary-school population appear to evidence special needs for training: the slow-leamer group, those having pronounced disabilities, and those with average or above-average achievement records.

Since the slow learner group presented the most urgent problem for the faculty, it was decided first to establish remedial reading classes for entering tenth-grade pupils. In these classes concentrated work was done in oral reading and phonics, in vocabulary building, in spelling, and in interest or leisure time reading. This work was substituted for regular English. An effort was made to provide adjusted materials in other classes in which the same pupils were programmed. But in no other area was homogeneous grouping provided. Those pupils found to have pronounced reading disabilities were given preliminary individual diagnostic tests and referred to specialists for further examination and special training.

THE EXPERIMENT

In September, 1950, an investigation of the problem of establishing a program for improving the reading skills of the average and above-average pupil was begun. The program in use by The United States Air Forces and the materials and consultative services from Science Research Associates were most helpful. A reading improvement laboratory was set up which provided a separate area for silent reading practice. A part of the class could thus work without disturbance while the remaining pupils were taught as a group by the teacher in charge of the experiment. Basic equipment consisted of one Keystone No. 46 telebinocular with visual survey tests, one Keystone tachistoscope with visual-span development slides, two near-point tachistoscope with 2 x 2 inch digit slides and six S. R. A. (Science Research Associates) Reading Accelerators. In addition, a supply of reading materials was obtained and calibrated. Diagnostic testing and individual record keeping materials were added as needed.

Twelfth-grade pupils of average or above-average scholastic achievement were then interviewed by home-room teachers and counsel-

ors. Those who were interested after hearing about the experimental class were tested with both the telebinocular and diagnostic reading tests. In most cases parents were consulted before a final decision was reached. All pupils understood that the work was to be done without credit, that no grade would be recorded on their permanent record, but that a detailed report of their progress would be available upon completion of the nine-weeks' course. Fifty pupils agreed to participate in the experiment. One teacher assisted by a counselor devoted one-half teaching program (2 classes) to the course. Twenty-four pupils, divided into two classes, received nine-weeks' training during the first nine weeks of the semester. The remaining pupils received training for a similar period during the second half of the semester.

Class periods were of forty-five minutes' duration. The usual procedure was to give one-half of the class (six pupils) tachistoscopic drill for one-half the class period while the other class members practiced speed reading using the reading rate accelerator. During the second half of the period the groups were reversed, providing each pupil with twenty minutes of practice with the tachistoscope and twenty minutes with the accelerator five times a week. Vocabulary exercises were included and outside interest reading was emphasized.

A considerable number of slides were developed for group use with the far-point tachistoscope. Most pupils increased their span of vision and decreased their required time for focus so that after several weeks they were able to read "by the line," such as, "The boy ran all the way home from school," in $\frac{1}{50}$ th to $\frac{1}{25}$ th of a second. Those who fell behind were given an opportunity for individual practice on the small tachistoscope with the number slides. It was recognized that the training was not equivalent since one was far-point and the other near-point but the procedure nevertheless proved effective in most cases.¹

The use of the accelerator proved to be most interesting and stimulating for the pupils. This portion of the program was completely self-motivating. Almost no supervision was necessary. Unusual concentration was evidenced by the pupils who seemed to be completely unaware of the visitors who frequently observed them. Each pupil practiced reading from a book of his own choice within his vocabulary range at a little beyond (perhaps ten words per minute) his rate of the day before. His judgment was followed in setting the rate indicator control of the accelerator. Each pupil kept a graphic representation of his own record of progress. Weekly tests were given, using the *S. R. A. Reading Books 3 and 4*. Those books contain material ranging in level of

¹ Miss Clyde Roberts, teacher in charge of reading classes, carried on the program with competence and skill and developed much of the material used.

difficulty from grades 9.0 through 13.9 as measured by the Dale-Chall formula for determining reading difficulty. Each book contains articles from widely read books and magazines covering a wide range of interests. Comprehension on each article was evaluated by a twenty-question multiple choice test.

In addition, all pupils were tested on speed, comprehension, and vocabulary before and at the end of their training, using equivalent forms of *The Diagnostic Reading Test (Survey Section)*.³ The first group of twenty-four pupils was also tested on a third equivalent form of the same test nine weeks after the completion of the training.³ The statistics presented in the table on the opposite facing page and the chart were based on the test scores of these twenty-four pupils included in the study.

The statistical significances of the changes in speed, comprehension, and vocabulary were computed from scores on equivalent forms of *The Diagnostic Reading Test (Survey Section)*, given before training, at the conclusion of the nine-weeks' training period, and nine weeks after the conclusion of the training period. The formula,

$$t_o = \frac{M_d}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum (d - M_d)^2}{N(N-1)}}},$$

was used, entering the t -table with $N - 1 = 23$

degrees of freedom, to determine the degree of probability that changes in scores on the various parts of the test were due to chance factors alone. The t_o values obtained, shown in Column III of the table, represent varying degrees of statistical significance, as indicated in Column IV. An interpretation of the statistical significance of the t_o values is given in Column V.

A very highly significant increase (at the $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent level) was found between speed of reading on the initial and final tests and on the initial and post-final tests, with a very slight and not significant loss between speed of reading on the final and post-final tests. Practically, this may be interpreted as indicating that the training course was of significant value in increasing speed of reading during the period of training. Despite a very slight loss in reading rate from the final to

³*The Diagnostic Reading Test (Survey Section)*, The Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., Dr. Frances Triggs, Chairman, Kingscote Apt. 3G-419 W. 119th Street, New York 27, N. Y.

³Form A was used for initial test and Form B for final test for half the pupils (twelve in number); Form B was used for initial test and Form A for final test for half the pupils (twelve in number); and Form C was used for post-final test for all pupils (twenty-four in number).

⁴Jackson, Robert W. B., and Ferguson, George A., *Manual of Educational Statistics*, Department of Educational Research, University of Toronto, 1942, p. 111.

TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE OF CHANGES IN SPEED, COMPREHENSION, VOCABULARY, AND TOTAL SCORES
ON COMPARABLE FORMS OF THE DIAGNOSTIC READING TEST¹ FOR TWENTY-FOUR
MCKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS AFTER READING IMPROVEMENT COURSE

Initial Test was given at the beginning of the nine-weeks' Reading Improvement Course.

Final Test was given at the end of the nine-weeks' Reading Improvement Course.

Post-final Test was given nine-weeks after the end of the nine-weeks' Reading Improvement Course.

| I | II | III | IV | V |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|---|
| Tests Compared | Scores Compared | <i>t</i> ₀ Values ^a | Level of Significance ^a | Statistical Significance |
| Initial and Final | Speed (Words per Minute) | 6.408 | Less than .001 ⁴ | Very highly significant increase |
| | Comprehension (Speed Part-1-20) | -.831 | Between .40 & .50 | Slight but not significant loss |
| | Total Comprehension (1-20 and 80-100) | -.483 | Between .60 & .70 | Slight but not significant loss |
| | Vocabulary (20-80) | 2.612 | Between .01 & .02 | Significant increase |
| | Total Score (1-100) | 2.033 | Between .05 & .10 | Probably significant increase |
| Final and Post-final | Speed (Words per Minute) | -.375 | Between .70 & .80 | Very slight and not significant loss |
| | Comprehension (Speed Part) | -.062 | More than .90 | Exceedingly slight and not significant increase |
| | Total Comprehension | .316 | Between .70 & .80 | Very slight and not significant loss |
| | Vocabulary | -4.094 | Less than .001 | Very highly significant loss |
| | Total Score | -2.964 | Between .001 & .01 | Significant loss |
| Initial and Post-final | Speed (Words per Minute) | 5.095 | Less than .001 | Very highly significant increase |
| | Comprehension (Speed Part) | -1.920 | Between .05 & .10 | Probably significant loss |
| | Total Comprehension | -.120 | More than .90 | Very slight and not significant loss |
| | Vocabulary | -1.299 | Between .20 & .30 | Moderate but probably not significant loss |
| | Total Score | -1.108 | Between .20 & .30 | Moderate but probably not significant loss |

¹ *The Diagnostic Reading Test (Survey Section)*, the Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc., Dr. Frances Triggs, Chairman.

$$^2 \text{ Formula used: } t_0 = \frac{M_d}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum (d - M_d)^2}{N(N-1)}}}$$

N = 24

Enter the t-table with N - 1 = 23 degrees of freedom.

³ The probability that the differences between the observed mean differences on equivalent forms of the test were due to chance factors alone.

⁴ In less than 1/100 % of the cases would the observed mean difference differ from zero by pure chance.

the post-final test, the retention of speed was shown to be excellent even after the training had been discontinued.

A slight loss was found between the initial and final test comprehension scores on the portion of the test from which the reading rate was taken (items 1-20), and an exceedingly slight loss was found on the same portion between the final and post-final tests. Neither loss was significant. However, the total loss on this portion of the test during the course of the experiment, from initial to post-final test, was probably significant.

A slight but not significant loss was found on the total comprehension score (items 1-20 and 80-100) between initial and final tests, and a very slight and not significant increase on the same score between the final and post-final tests. Between the initial and post-final total comprehension scores a very slight and not significant loss was found.

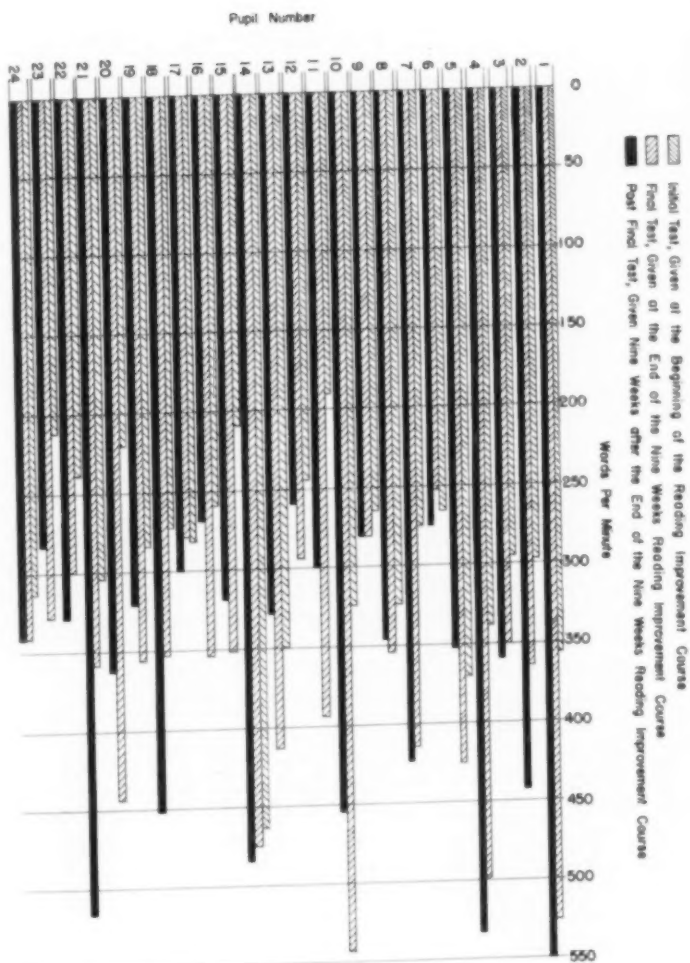
A significant increase in vocabulary score (items 20-80) was found between the initial and final tests. Between the final and post-final vocabulary scores a very highly significant loss was observed. The loss on the vocabulary portion from initial to post-final test was moderate, but probably not significant.

The increase in total score (items 1-100) from initial to final test was probably significant. The loss in total score from final to post-final test was significant. The loss in total score from initial to post-final score was moderate, but probably not significant.

The entire group of pupils participating in the experiment had a mean I. Q. (*Otis Short Form*) of 110, with a range of 96-133. The graph shows the speed of reading in words per minute on equivalent forms of *The Diagnostic Reading Test* for each of the twenty-four pupils before training, at the end of training, and nine weeks subsequent to the completion of training. The mean number of words per minute before training was 297 with a range of from 204 to 464. After training, the mean number of words increased to 388, with a range of from 243 to 550. The mean gain for the group was found to be 84 words per minute.

A determination of the correlation of intelligence with beginning reading rate was found to be $+ .0454$, P. E. $\pm .1051$, certainly not significant. A similar correlation of intelligence and reading rate after training was found to be $+ .186$, P. E. $\pm .1016$, slightly higher, but of very doubtful significance in view of the large probable error. A determination of the correlation, however, between intelligence and the gain in words per minute was found to be $+ .2054$, P. E. $\pm .0974$, probably significant.

READING SCORES IN WORDS PER MINUTE ON COMPARABLE FORMS OF DIAGNOSTIC READING TESTS



GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

1. After nine weeks of training, twenty-two of the twenty-four pupils showed improvement in reading rate. There was a slight but not statistically significant loss in comprehension for the entire group.

2. The two pupils who did not show improvement at the end of their training showed a gain during the nine weeks after training.

3. Eleven pupils, or approximately fifty per cent, continued to gain in reading rate during the nine weeks after the training period.

4. With one exception, those who gained most had the highest reading rate at the beginning of training.

5. One pupil who gained in reading rate during the training was found, nine weeks after the discontinuance of training, to read at a slower rate than before the training was begun.

6. There appeared to be a slightly significant correlation ($+ .2054$, $P. E. \pm .0974$) between gain in reading rate and intelligence, but no significant correlation between intelligence and reading rate either before or after training. It may be assumed, perhaps, that intelligence as measured by the *Otis Test* was not, as a single factor, sufficiently dominant to affect reading rate significantly.

7. There seemed to be a high relationship, not verified, between emotional stability and reading-rate improvement.

8. A study of the telebinocular visual survey tests indicated no relationship between visual efficiency and reading rate improvement. It appeared that the visual deficiencies present were of relatively minor importance compared to other factors affecting success or failure.

9. It appeared that maximum improvement had not been revealed by any pupil during the nine weeks' training, but that skills acquired continued to account for improvement after training was discontinued.

Pupils interviewed nine weeks after training indicated: (1) a little over half thought it helped with school work; others were not sure; (2) all except two were sure the training enabled them to read better the things they liked to read—two were not sure.

It would appear that more research is needed with a corollary program of vocabulary building (1) to observe and, if possible, to measure the effect of individual interest and background familiarity with the content of the test material used; (2) to observe and, if possible, to measure the extent to which emotional stability affects the rate of progress; (3) to determine through a paired control group a comparison of reading-rate gain of pupils not in special classes with those receiving special training; and (4) to determine a more valid correlation between reading rate and intelligence by using non-reading intelligence tests. Experimental work is being continued.

Life Adjustment Education in Texas Secondary Schools

JOHN W. McFARLAND

THERE have been many statements of ways in which secondary education can become more democratic, more functional, and better adapted to the needs of all youth of secondary-school age.¹ Most educators accept these proposals in theory; yet they have not been widely translated into practice. Teachers in recent years have sought a united effort and action to develop school practices and learning experiences in harmony with accepted educational theory and with professed belief. Life adjustment education is such an effort.

Life adjustment education as emphasis on providing effective attention to individual pupils, on the practical applications of all school learnings, and on democratic and co-operative operation of the secondary-school program was accepted as highly to be desired by teachers and principals in one hundred sixty-nine Texas secondary schools participating in a recent study.² The survey was conducted by the Texas Study of Secondary Education during the school year of 1950-1951 and was based upon eighteen *Self-Appraisal Checklists*,³ designed in a

¹ Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth. Report to the National Conference at Chicago, Oct. 1950. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education pp. 10-38.

Planning for American Youth. (1951. 64 pp. 50¢), *The Imperative Needs of Youth* (Bul. No. 145, 1947, 144 pp. \$1.50), and *Life Adjustment in the Secondary School Curriculum* (Bul. No. 171, 1950. 248 pp. \$1.50). Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

² McFarland, John W. *A Study of the Implementation of Life Adjustment Education in One Hundred Sixty-Nine Texas Secondary Schools*, Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, The University of Texas, Austin, 1951.

³ Texas Study of Secondary Education. *Self-Appraisal Checklists—Life Adjustment Education in the Secondary Schools*. Austin: Texas Study of Secondary Education, 217 Sutton Hall, The University of Texas, 1951. Also see *How to Conduct the Holding Power Study and How to Conduct the Follow-up Study* by the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Committee, State Department of Education, Springfield, Illinois.

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graduate seminar at the University of Texas under the direction of Professor J. G. Umstattd and published by the Texas Study of Secondary Education, which is the research organization sponsored by the Texas Association of Secondary-School Principals and seven other organizations.

GENERAL FINDINGS

The survey revealed a definite and vigorous development of one or more aspects of life adjustment education in approximately seventy-five of the one hundred sixty-nine participating schools and a developing awareness of the desirability and feasibility of such emphasis in the other ninety-four schools.

Provision was made in the design of the checklists for respondents to appraise the extent to which they desired each of the one hundred twenty beliefs and each of the four hundred forty-seven procedures and also the extent to which each belief and each procedure was being achieved in the local school. Generally speaking, there was a high acceptance of nearly all items as "desired." Frequently respondents indicated wide discrepancies between "desired" and "achieved" ratings, possibly revealing a latent impetus toward further extension of the beliefs and procedures of life adjustment education.

Most of the faculties in the schools surveyed have devoted abundant attention and consideration to the principles and practices of life adjustment education. Study and evaluation of the checklists served in many schools to focus attention upon specific problems and potentialities of such a program. Progressive teachers dedicated to facilitating the sound development of boys and girls have found in life adjustment education a familiar theme of opportunity, guidance, development, and co-operation.

NEED FOR INCREASING THE SCHOOL'S HOLDING POWER

There exists in the one-hundred sixty-nine participating schools a widespread recognition of the importance of the school's holding power. One of the functions of life adjustment education is to hold each pupil in school as long as the school has more valuable experiences to offer than the place to which the pupil would go if he left school. The quickening interest in early school leavers and in ways of holding them in school is evidenced by the growing number of follow-up studies of drop-outs and of high-school graduates,⁴ by the recent conferences of representatives of the school systems of forty large cities

⁴ Allen, Earl, and Umstattd, J. G. *The Problem of Drop-Outs in the Secondary School, with Special Reference to Seven Texas High Schools*. Austin: The Texas Study of Secondary Education, Research Bulletin Number 8, 1951.

interested in this problem,⁵ by the provision of special education for those who cannot profit from conventional education,⁶ by the increasing concern in the guidance program for the problems of youth identified as potential early school leavers,⁷ and by the emphasis of life adjustment education on the endeavor to "enroll and retain all youth."⁸

SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

In a few Texas schools, life adjustment education is developing in special courses (human relations, home and family living, consumer education, modern problems, senior problems, orientation, etc.). In some schools outstanding achievements are realized through the core or common-learnings program. Such a curricular organization probably increases the possibility of effective life adjustment education, but powerful action in the direction of functional education founded upon the interests, needs, and potentialities of the specific boys and girls of the school is developing in the regular classes, home rooms, and activity programs of many of the schools studied during 1950-1951.

The survey revealed numerous instances of dynamic individualized instruction. Teachers are becoming aware of the differences among pupils; they are seeking the optimum pattern of education for each pupil. Smaller classes for slow learners and for gifted students, implementation of the individual project method of learning, and effective use of extensive files of data on individual pupils are in some schools facilitating the diversification of instruction. Differentiation of aims, subject matter, materials, and methods within a single classroom is proving effective.

There is some evidence of the democratization of learning methods. Teachers report the use of democratic discussion, a permissive atmosphere in the classroom, and pupil control of the activity program. The reports do not indicate widespread teacher acceptance of the participation and control by pupils in the planning of classroom learning activities, however.

Texas teachers participating in the survey manifested a whole-some and sincere interest in the development of boys and girls. They demonstrate an awareness of the differences that exist among their pupils in interests, in abilities, in strength, in aptitudes, etc. In

⁵Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School, and What Can We Do About It? (A Report of the Work Conference on Life Adjustment Education, Chicago, Illinois, January 24-27, 1950). Washington 25, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1950, pp. 1-72.

⁶Martens, Elise H. "Toward Life Adjustment through Special Education," *School Life* 33: 52-54, January, 1951.

⁷Dugan, Willis E. "Counseling and Guidance in the Secondary School," *National Association of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin* 35 (No. 175): 31, January, 1951.

⁸Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

many instances they are adapting the educational program to the characteristics of the pupils whom they contact.

The Texas survey was divided into eighteen parts, separate checklists being utilized in each of the following areas: administration, guidance, the homeroom, student council, student activities, and each of thirteen fields of study.⁹ In most of the schools the checklists were considered and appraised by committees or individuals specializing in the area being checked. A few of the more significant implications gleaned from a study of the responses are presented in the remainder to this paper; the findings are classified according to the first five areas and a summary of the other thirteen fields of study included in the checklists. They are submitted to record present status in the schools involved and to provide comparative data for schools wishing to make similar studies.

ADMINISTRATION

Life adjustment education in school administration is accepted in theory by the participants in this survey, but it is not being uniformly achieved in their schools. There is indicated an impetus toward continuing research as a basis for curriculum development, toward flexibility in the school program, and toward special education for those who need it. The respondents indicated that they strongly desire in-service education of the staff on school time and the utilization of professional consultant services.

On the administration checklist, the belief attaining the highest acceptance was the one concerning the school's holding power, "A concerted effort should be made to retain in school all youth who can profit from further secondary education."¹⁰ The belief that all members of the school community should participate in establishing the program of life adjustment education was less widely accepted, indicating a reluctance to share the functions of administration with pupils and laymen (and in some instances, with teachers).

The checklist called for a continuing study to determine educational needs. Such a study was to include a community analysis, a follow-up study of graduates and of early school leavers, and surveys of vocational trends and of the present student population. The ratings of achievement in these five areas of investigation are not comparable with the ratings of their desirability, the discrepancies indicating that

⁹ Texas Study of Secondary Education. *Self-Appraisal Checklists—Life Adjustment in the Secondary School*. 38 pp. mimeo., 50 cents each; three copies, \$1.00. Austin: Texas Study of Secondary Education, 217 Sutton Hall, The University of Texas, 1951.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

schools are not gathering the data about pupils and community which they desire to use and which are essential as a basis for educational planning.

Concerning the utilization of out-of-school resources, the twenty-seven high schools with more than five hundred pupils each rated as "frequent" their use of individual consultants from the community as resource persons. The ninety-nine high schools in the study, with fewer than five hundred pupils each, rated their achievement in that respect considerably lower, but indicated a greater use of school buses for field trips. The eleven negro high schools and the twenty-five junior high schools rated their achievements low on both of these methods of utilizing community resources.

There is a general consensus in the schools studied concerning the great desirability of providing for flexibility in scheduling to meet individual needs. Public-school appraisals of the achievement of work-experience programs, an important means for providing flexibility, vary from high to very low. One method for providing work-experience in the curriculum which may have been overlooked by some respondents is through supervised programs of vocational agriculture, distributive education, and diversified occupations. (There are vocational agriculture programs in nine hundred sixty-six Texas high schools, and some of the remaining three hundred nineteen high schools in the state have programs in distributive education, in diversified occupations, or in both.)

Responses indicate great discrepancies, according to sizes of schools, in the practice of providing part-time schedules and evening schools for adults and for out-of-school youth. Evening schools and the provision of part-time schedules are prevalent in the larger schools studied but practically non-existent in the small schools.⁴ Seven out of the eleven participating negro schools maintain evening schools, but only two of these eleven schools manifest any provision for part-time attendance by pupils who must work but who also desire to continue their education.

There is high acceptance of individual growth and development as basic in promotion and graduation policy. The highest evaluations of achievement in school administration in this study are those concerning the pupil activity program as a part of the curriculum and as reaching a major portion of the student body throughout the year. These data confirm reports of principals and teachers and the writer's observations concerning the vigor of the pupil activity program in these one hundred sixty-nine secondary schools which participated in this survey in Texas.

GUIDANCE

The responses show an interest in guidance, a desire for its extension and development, but low ratings of achievement in specific and fundamental procedures—the gathering of data, the provision of time to be devoted to guidance, and the orientation of teachers in the concepts and potentialities of the guidance program. The junior-high-school group yielded particularly high appraisals of a very important practice, "All teachers seek to discover and to use opportunities for guidance in classroom work and in other relations with students."¹¹

There is considerable variation in appraisal of the securing and maintaining of the various types of information to be used in guidance. The respondents report relatively high performance in the accumulation of conventional data concerning family, health and physical condition, and educational and vocational plans, but low achievement in gathering and maintaining information about interests, aptitudes, problems, social growth, and past experiences. The use of anecdotal records and of sociometric studies is frequently indicated to be "barely perceptible" or completely lacking.

Although there is relatively high acceptance of the idea that elementary-school pupils should receive information about the secondary school through an orientation program, indications are that little has been accomplished in this matter in an organized way, particularly in the smaller schools. The provision of help by counselors to teachers in the use of personnel data and test results, of guidance for out-of-school youth, of the functions of the visiting teacher, and of follow-up studies of those who have left school are appraised at low levels by most of the reporting faculties. Reports from the large high schools for white children indicate outstanding achievements in helping and advising pupils with problems arising from part-time employment; the eleven schools for colored pupils also report satisfactory achievement.

THE HOME ROOM

Reports concerning the home room indicate wide variations in achievement. In some schools the home room seems to provide an energizing spark for the school, enhancing individual adjustment and providing significant group experiences in action, co-operation, practical learnings, and recreation. In other schools, the home room is reported to have a negative effect.

Orientation of new pupils, provision of democratic experiences in planning and management, and wholesome effects on pupil-teacher relationships are considered by most of the respondents of this study to

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

be facilitated through the homeroom. Reports of the respondents in this study indicate that more effective co-ordination of the home room's work with that of other school agencies is needed. According to this survey, there exists a distinct need for effective pre-service and in-service preparation for sponsors of home rooms. Furthermore, pupils need to be oriented to the potentialities of the home room, and pupil leaders need to be trained for their roles. Some Texas secondary schools are conducting training courses for home-room leaders.

THE STUDENT COUNCIL

The student council is widely accepted by the participants in this survey as a desirable agency which should have a significant role in school life. Responses indicate that major emphasis is usually placed on the educational and character-building values of the student council and on the value to the participating pupil of council experience, rather than upon the council's role in the improvement of school life, although a few individual schools report positive action by the council and its achievement of status as the representative of the student body. There is an indicated desire to extend the value of student council experiences to larger numbers of pupils through participation of non-members in certain significant activities of the council. Students who are not members of the council attend meetings as interested visitors, testify or act as consultants to provide information to council committees, and assist with student council projects like parties, drives, *etc.*

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

Responses to the fifth checklist indicate that the student activity program is keenly desired as an aspect of life adjustment education and that it is contributing significant achievements to the current program. A democratic and permissive atmosphere for the activity program is accepted as highly desirable and is being attained to a high degree. The essential role of pupils in planning and conducting their activities is recognized. The vigor of the program and strong pupil interest are reflected in the high appraisal scores.

Correlation of the activity program with classroom work is in most cases appraised as desirable but not yet achieved. Certain desirable phases of the activity program (extensive participation in intramurals, assembly programs, and theatrical productions) are evaluated at low scores for achievement.

THE THIRTEEN FIELDS OF STUDY

1. Adequate experiences in art are not being provided in the majority of the participating schools, although the respondents indicate strong desires to provide such experiences.

2. Emphasis in business education was reported to be on realistic experiences related directly whenever possible to prospective employment. The understanding of commercial and industrial relationships is not stressed as much as are commercial skills. There appears to be a need for more direct contacts with employers and employees.

3. Schools are striving toward a thoroughgoing health program through aggressive attention to providing healthful school conditions as well as through effective health education.

4. Homemaking education provides a flexible program based on realistic pupil experiences.

5. A large number of the participating schools do not offer work in industrial arts and industrial vocational education. The great core of the industrial arts program consists of the construction and repair of articles by use of tools and machines.

6. Progressive practices like the organization of a representative advisory council for industrial vocational education and the extension of the program to out-of-school youth and adults did not attain as high evaluations in the responding schools as did practices more closely related to the conventional high-school program, like the application of school learnings to activities in this area.

7. The survey found a wide variety of learning experiences being used in the English program. It revealed positive evidence that English teachers are seeking to adapt their curriculum and methods of teaching to the characteristics of specific individual pupils.

8. The functional aspects of mathematics are being increasingly emphasized in the secondary schools studied. Some schools are making real progress in providing vital, realistic experiences with mathematics. Even so, relatively little attention is being devoted to individualizing the mathematics curriculum or to studying the characteristics of pupils and adapting learning experiences to fit the needs, interests, and potentialities of the individual pupils.

9. Musical activities are consciously conducted in a democratic manner designed to develop co-operation and good citizenship. However, little is being done to develop understanding and appreciation of the relationships that exist between music and the other media of the fine arts. Physical facilities for instruction in music, particularly libraries of recorded musical examples, appear to be inadequate in most of the schools studied.

10. Recognition of the importance of physical education, recreation, and safety education is indicated by the fact that daily instruction in these areas is provided for each pupil in a full-length period, and with a wide variety of learning activities.

11. Direct experiences through observation, experimentation, and investigation in the laboratory and in the surrounding community tend to make science learnings vital and worth-while to each pupil.

12. The appraisals pointed to the achievement of democratic practices in social studies instruction but to the rejection of co-operative pupil-teacher planning, which is one specific aspect of democracy in education. Teachers of the social studies accorded particularly low appraisal ratings to the extent to which parents and community groups are being consulted concerning the selection of curricular materials. Assurance was provided that controversial social issues are being discussed on a just and equitable basis. There was great emphasis on the study of international affairs.

13. Appraisals indicated that the vocational agriculture program provides splendid opportunities for the development of initiative and of responsibility on the part of participating pupils and for informal guidance concerning the real and vital problems of the boys. The social and economic aspects of agriculture are being emphasized to good advantage, and the boys are gaining experience in a practical field.

CONCLUSIONS

Life adjustment education is developing in Texas secondary schools through a number of different channels and as a result of a number of different stimuli. In some schools, study by the faculty in connection with the *Evaluative Criteria*¹², a child-study program, the use of the Texas Study's *Self-Appraisal Checklists*, and other programs of in-service study have brought about emphasis of the practical applications of school learnings, adaptations of the curriculum to fit the needs of the particular boys and girls in class, and democratic classroom procedures. In other schools, the advent of a counselor has been the signal for greater attention to individual boys and girls and to their needs, abilities, and interests. In other cases, student activities have expanded and have pervaded classroom instruction to the extent of making it more vital and interesting. The most frequent channel for the development of life adjustment education seems to be through greater emphasis on functional aspects of the curriculum.

Effective life adjustment education requires mature study and conscientious effort on the parts of all concerned in the educative process. The rewards of such study and effort are to be found in the more effective education of a greater number of our youth as home members, workers, and citizens.

¹² *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition). Washington 6, D. C.: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1950.

The Science Curriculum and the Contemporary Culture Pattern

JAMES V. FARRELL

INTRODUCTION

THE purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between the secondary-school science curriculum and the contemporary culture pattern in the United States during the time span 1918-1940. The method used was first, to set up a series of trends which were important in the culture pattern between the two World Wars, and second, to investigate the secondary-school science curriculum for the purpose of discovering how it was changing in relation to those cultural trends.

The study attempts to explore a broad area in the culture pattern and in the secondary-school science curriculum. The nature and scope of the study is to be considered as a general survey. It has not attempted to be complete in every detail with regard to either the science curriculum or the culture pattern.

Throughout the years 1918 to 1940, the culture pattern of the United States underwent large changes, and the accelerated rate at which the change took place seems equally as important as the fact of cultural change itself. The continually increasing number of applications of the biological and physical sciences in the culture pattern was one of the chief factors which fostered that cultural change.

Social scientists have in recent times advanced the thesis that man can actually direct and control cultural change by means of co-operative effort among his cultural controls. Education, both in its formal and informal aspects, is considered to be one such cultural control.

If these two propositions are accepted—namely, a rapidly changing culture pattern resulting in part from applied science, and education

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operating as a cultural control—then it seems important to make a study of the relationship which has existed between the science curriculum of the secondary school and the evolving culture pattern.

A thorough search of the literature uncovered little evidence of any comprehensive effort which had ever been made to correlate, in general, the actual science taught in the secondary school with the changes which had taken place in the culture pattern since 1918. Many studies of the science curriculum are available which treat narrow problems in great detail. Some examples of these are studies of the science content of magazines and newspapers, textbook analyses, studies concerned with the development of courses of study, studies of the historical development of general science, biology, and physics in the curriculum. However, no investigation was found which attempted to show the relationship between general trends of the culture pattern and general trends of the secondary-school science curriculum. That is the problem of this study.

THE ORGANIZATION AND PLAN OF THE STUDY

This study is primarily an historical analysis. It makes a survey of cultural change since 1918 by means of a critical examination of the writings of recognized social scientists. It attempts to deal with science education in terms of what was actually being done in the secondary-school classrooms during the years 1918-1940.

It was found while planning the study that certain categories of classification would be necessary as an aid in the determination of which cultural changes were to be considered as being most important, or most significant, during the time span. These categories would also aid in the general organization of the study and in viewing the cultural pattern as a connected whole. In other words, a morphology had to be developed which would serve in the analysis of the culture pattern and which would also allow relationships to be brought out between the culture pattern and science education as it was carried on in the secondary school.

Two such morphologies were known to the investigator during the initial planning stages of the study. Arthur Henry Moehlman, "Toward a New History of Education," provided one such morphology. He visualized a whole series of cultural adaptations—which he considered in terms of human activities—as serving to strike some kind of a balance between people and their surroundings. The major areas of human activities which Moehlman lists are: education, philosophy, health, invention, production, consumption, recreation, communication, transportation, exchange, and government.

Bronislaw Malinowski's *A Scientific Theory of Culture*, primarily anthropological, contains the other morphology. His theory of culture, one based upon function, lists seven basic and four derived needs of human beings and then relates these needs and their responses to cultural determinism.

Rather than apply one or the other of those morphologies in this study, it was decided to derive other categories of classification of cultural changes which appeared to be more suitable. The categories which are used in this study were developed mainly from a combination of the categories of Moehlman and Malinowski. In addition, the organizational bases of the Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends (the Hoover Report) and the studies of *Middletown* by the Lynds provided aid in deriving the final categories of classification which make up the morphology of culture used in this study.

In order to facilitate ease in the classification of culture trends, an activity analysis was decided upon; in other words, it was decided to describe the culture pattern insofar as possible in terms of the activities in which people engaged.

After due consideration to be sure that important cultural activities had not been omitted, the following seven categories of classification for the trends in the culture pattern were accepted for this study.

1. *Production Activities*: including those activities whose function it was to add physical or form utilities to goods.
2. *Distribution Activities*: including those activities whose function it was to add time and place utilities to goods.
3. *Consumer Activities*: including those activities which resulted in the consumption of food, clothing, housing, household equipment, fuel, recreation, and leisure.
4. *Transportation and Communication Activities*: including those activities functioning to move people, commodities, and information.
5. *Growth and Education Activities*: including those group activities which were concerned with procreation, kinship, training, and philosophical direction in the culture.
6. *Health and Welfare Activities*: including those activities which aided in the improvement of physical and mental health, the elimination of physical and mental deficiencies, and which provided supplementary help to individuals, institutions, or communities.
7. *Governmental Activities*: including all activities carried on by government.

In terms of the secondary-school science curriculum the study is concerned almost entirely with four course offerings; namely, general science, general biology, physics, and chemistry. This study treats other secondary-school science offerings only incidentally. The aim of the analysis of the science curriculum was to discover as much as

possible about what was actually being done in the science classrooms during the years 1918-1940 in order to be able to show trends and establish relationship, or lack of relationship, with trends in the culture pattern. Thus, the previous research in science education was utilized, which aided in the accomplishment of that aim. In addition, thirty-six science textbooks which were widely used in the schools during the time span under consideration were analyzed in order to get additional information as to what was the "going program" in the classroom. Parenthetically, it is appropriate to say that the organization and content of the textbook used in the course was a good indication of what was actually being taught in the course.

The entire study was divided into two main periods, namely, 1918-1930 and 1930-1940. Such a division of the total time span was not arrived at arbitrarily: the division appeared to be demanded by the trends in the culture pattern. The years following World War I can be characterized as a "boom" period for the most part. They are also characterized by the attitude "The best government is the one which governs least," and by a rather severe dependence upon individualism, *laissez-faire*, and materialistic values. The 1930's were depression years for the most part. During those years there was a definite shift from individualism toward collectivism, governmental controls and services were expanded rapidly, and there was a definite search for aesthetic values in addition to the previously dominant materialistic values. Thus, the division of the total time span into two periods was justifiable.

In summary, then, the study presents a description of cultural trends in the United States and it depends upon the published works of a selected few of the recognized social scientists for the accuracy of those trends. The study then develops intensively the trends in the secondary-school science curriculum. The "end point" of the study is the attempt to set these two lines of change up beside one another for the purpose of pointing out relationships between them. The value of the study rests on the fact that it approaches the history of the secondary-school science curriculum from the point of view of indicating relationships between science education and the culture pattern. The study attempts to show how the science curriculum of the secondary school has been related to the culture pattern in the past, with a view of securing insight for curriculum construction in the future.

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The first step in the analysis of the data of the study was to summarize the important changes which had taken place in the culture

Two phrases used hereinafter need to be defined. *Amount of relationship* refers to the number and per cent of the total 129 culture trends which were reflected in the subject matter content of each secondary school science course. *Extent of lag* refers to the number and per cent of the total number of trends reflected in each science course which lagged behind the time of appearance of those trends in the culture pattern.

The four science courses previously mentioned varied in the apparent closeness of their relationship to the cultural trends included in this study. (Refer to Table II.) By 1940 the content of the general science course was related to 56 (or 43 per cent) of the 129 cultural trends which were listed; the content of general biology was related

TABLE II. A SUMMARIZATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EACH SECONDARY-SCHOOL SCIENCE COURSE AND TRENDS IN THE CULTURE PATTERN

| Category of Culture | Total Number of Trends Listed | Trends Treated in General Science | | Trends Treated in Biology | | Trends Treated in Chemistry | | Trends Treated in Physics | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----|---------------------------|----|-----------------------------|----|---------------------------|----|
| | | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Production | 19 | 4 | 21 | 3 | 16 | 2 | 10 | 4 | 21 |
| Distribution | 11 | 2 | 18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Consumption | 21 | 11 | 52 | 7 | 33 | 7 | 33 | 3 | 14 |
| Transportation & Communication | 20 | 13 | 65 | 2 | 10 | 6 | 30 | 9 | 45 |
| Growth and Education | 26 | 7 | 27 | 7 | 27 | 3 | 12 | 1 | 4 |
| Health and Welfare | 17 | 13 | 76 | 15 | 88 | 4 | 24 | 2 | 12 |
| Government | 15 | 6 | 40 | 5 | 33 | 2 | 13 | 1 | 7 |
| TOTALS | 129 | 56 | 43 | 39 | 30 | 24 | 19 | 20 | 15 |

NOTE: TABLE II is read as follows: of the 19 production trends which are listed, information related to 4 of those trends (or 21 per cent of the total number of production trends listed) was presented in general science, information related to 3 of those trends (or 16 per cent of the total) was presented in biology, information related to 2 of the trends (or 10 per cent of the total) was presented in chemistry, and information related to 4 of the trends (or 21 per cent of the total) was presented in physics.

to 39 (or 30 per cent) of the trends listed; and chemistry content was related to 24 (or 19 per cent) of the trends listed; physics included content which was related to 20 of the trends (or 15 per cent). General science appeared to be most closely related to trends in the culture pattern, with biology next, and chemistry and physics least closely related to those trends.

Information related to a third or more of the cultural trends under each of the seven categories of cultural activities was included in the following courses of study by 1940: with regard to consumer activities, general science, biology, and chemistry presented information which was related to one third or more of the trends; with regard to transportation and communication activities, general science and physics contained course content which was related to a third or more of the trends listed; with regard to health and welfare activities, general science and biology contained content related to a third or more of the trends listed; with regard to governmental activities, general science and biology contained content which was related to a third or more of the trends listed. In all other instances less than one third of the trends listed under each category of cultural activities were treated in each of the four secondary school science courses studied.

TABLE III. THE NUMBER OF INSTANCES IN WHICH COURSE CONTENT ENTERED EACH COURSE IN THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL SCIENCE CURRICULUM AT ABOUT THE SAME TIME AS THE TRENDS ENTERED THE CULTURE PATTERN, AND THE NUMBER OF INSTANCES IN WHICH CONTENT IN EACH OF THE SCIENCE COURSES LAGGED THE APPEARANCE OF TRENDS IN THE CULTURE PATTERN.

| | <i>General Science</i> | | <i>Biology</i> | | <i>Chemistry</i> | | <i>Physics</i> | |
|---|----------------------------|----------|----------------|----------|------------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | <i>No.</i> | <i>%</i> | <i>No.</i> | <i>%</i> | <i>No.</i> | <i>%</i> | <i>No.</i> | <i>%</i> |
| The Total Number of Cultural Trends Treated in Each Course (From Table II). | 56 | | 39 | | 24 | | 20 | |
| The Number and Percentage in Which No Lag Occurred. | 20 | 36 | 12 | 31 | 9 | 37 | 12 | 60 |
| The Number and Percentage in Which Lag Occurred. | 35 | 62 | 22 | 56 | 13 | 54 | 6 | 30 |

NOTE: TABLE III is read as follows—of the 56 cultural trends which were treated in general science, information related to 20 of those trends (or 36 per cent of the total) appeared in general science at about the same time as the trends appeared in the culture pattern, and information related to 35 of those trends (or 62 per cent of the total) appeared in general science at a later time than the trends appeared in the culture pattern.

The study shows a definite lag in time between the date of appearance of trends in the cultural pattern and the date of inclusion of content related to those trends in the science curriculum. (Refer to Table III.)

The extent of lag was greatest in the general science course, which also showed the greatest amount of relationship to the 129 cultural trends listed. The extent of lag was least in the physics course, which also showed the least amount of relationship to the 129 cultural trends listed. The second greatest extent of lag occurred in biology, and the third greatest extent of lag occurred in chemistry.

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the data presented, several conclusions in regard to the relationships between the secondary-school science curriculum and cultural trends appear to be justified.

1. The content of the science curriculum in the secondary schools during the years 1918-1940 was not closely related to the 129 cultural trends which were listed in this study. Subject matter content of the general science course reflected the largest number of cultural trends—that number being 56, or 43 per cent of the total number of cultural trends listed.

2. The four courses in the secondary-school science curriculum which were studied varied in the closeness of their relationship between their various subject matter contents and trends in the culture pattern. General science content showed the greatest amount of relationship to cultural trends, biology content reflected the second greatest number of cultural trends, chemistry next, and physics the least number.

One interpretation of this variation is: the amount of relationship between the subject matter content of each course and trends in the culture pattern appeared to vary directly with stress in the course upon aims which indicated that the course content was attempting to explain the pupil's environment to him. The amount of relationship between course content and cultural trends appeared to vary inversely with the amount of stress in the course upon preparation for college.

Another possible interpretation of the variation in the amount of relationship between each of the four science courses and cultural trends is as follows. General science, which was related to the largest number of cultural trends, is the broadest area of subject matter. General biology, which was related to the next largest number of cultural trends, is the next broadest area of subject matter. Physics and chemistry, in which the contents of each was related to the least

number of cultural trends, are each the narrowest areas of subject matter of the four courses studied.

3. The subject matter content of the secondary-school science curriculum lagged behind the trends in the culture pattern. In other words, subject matter content which was related to cultural trends was included in the science curriculum after the trends appeared in the culture pattern. In the case of the 56 trends which were reflected in general science, 20 of them (or 36 per cent of the total) appeared in general science at about the same time as the trends appeared in the culture pattern, and 35 (or 62 per cent) lagged the appearance of trends in the culture pattern.

4. The magnitude of the time lag between cultural trends and course of study content ranged between five and thirty-five years; the most usual amount of lag being ten to twenty years. That is, science content related to the cultural trends listed entered the courses of study in the secondary-school science curriculum about ten to twenty years later, usually, than those trends appeared in the culture pattern.

POSSIBLE FUTURE STUDIES

The following problems in this general area are suggested as being worthy of further investigation.

1. A study of the relationships between cultural trends and the social studies curriculum of the secondary school. Such a study could indicate cultural trends which were being dealt with in the subject matter content of the secondary-school social studies curriculum, and the study could also indicate which trends (if any) were being ignored. The results of such a study combined with the results of this study on the secondary-school science curriculum would indicate which important cultural trends (if any) were usually ignored in the subject matter contents of both areas combined.

2. A study of the relationships between the findings of scientific research and the inclusion of such findings in the secondary school science curriculum. Such a study could point out the amount of the relationship and the extent of lag between the subject matter of the secondary-school science curriculum and the findings of scientific research. Possibly the study could indicate which of the two lines of development the secondary-school science curriculum has been following most closely during the past years—cultural trends or the findings of scientific research.

High School and College Relations

CARL E. SEIFERT

EDUCATION should be united and working toward common goals. No one segment of the educational system is more important than another. Each is a link in the chain and our educational system is no stronger than the weakest link, but we still hear people say that kindergarten and elementary education are most important because it is the foundation; others contend that secondary education is the most important because it provides the basic training for citizenship, and it is the last contact that the majority of our citizens have with formal education. Still others point to higher education with pride and contend that progress, production, security, and our national welfare is dependent upon our colleges and universities in supplying the needed engineers, doctors, teachers, economists, philosophers, and research workers. Security, national welfare, and progress is not dependent upon any single part, but upon the whole educational process as a united force.

The fact that education is essential to our national welfare is recognized in principle and in words. We could substantiate this by quoting the words of many of our statesmen and politicians, both living and dead. The late Theodore Roosevelt said that "If you teachers do not do your work well, this republic will not outlast the span of a single generation. The future of this nation depends upon our schools. The schools will be good, poor, or indifferent depending upon the teachers and not upon our statesmen and politicians." Just recently, Harry S. Truman, President of the United States said, in his proclamation for American Education Week:

No nation in history has relied so heavily for its strength on universal education as does the United States. In this time of crisis—immediately and over the long pull—we must unite to develop that essential strength with all the vigor at our command. Our continuing military and industrial might—so necessary to the preservation of our freedom—rests squarely on the number of technically trained young men and women our schools can produce. Equally important, our effective pursuit of the goals of democracy depends on the

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qualities of insight, judgment, self-discipline, and un-selfishness which each person contributes, at his best, to the common welfare. More opportunities for better education—for each individual and for all! So long as we work toward such an end, no alien forces can seriously threaten our democratic way of life.

However, our statesmen and politicians, both state and national, fail to transmit into practice their noble principles. In the national squeeze for manpower and critical materials, education at present is getting the short-end, as in the past. We need engineers, physicians, scientists, and so forth, but the defense department has first priority on all young men. For example, industry claimed it needed 80,000 engineers to meet the production goals set by the Defense Production Administration. Our institutions in 1951 provided only 38,000 engineers. It was claimed that we needed 80,000 teachers. The schools prepared few over 30,000. Another example is the great need for school buildings and equipment at all levels. The Defense Production Administration cut the very conservative estimate of the U. S. Office of Education for steel and other critical materials needed for school construction by more than 50 per cent.

SELECTIVE SERVICE TEST

Last spring and summer approximately 340,000 college students took the Selective Service Tests; 63 per cent made a score of 70 or better. A score of 70 on the Selective Service Test indicates the same level of ability as a score of 120 on the Army General Classification Test. Only 16 per cent of the entire population of this country are capable of achieving such a score.

There are approximately 1,050,000 boys who will become 18 years old this year. That figure will remain more or less constant until 1958. Using the score of 70 as a criteria for college means that approximately 160,000 of each age level would be eligible to pursue their studies in higher education, and taking into account the mortality rate in college that would just about supply the required number of engineers which industry claims it needs. If education is the foundation of our national strength, as Mr. Truman infers, why build a Maginot Line or a Chinese Wall and have the foundation crumbled beneath it? All levels of education must work together as a unit. The colleges and secondary schools in Pennsylvania have made considerable progress in this direction during the past five or six years.

COOPERATION BETWEEN ASSOCIATIONS

It is well to mention a few activities that the National and State Secondary-School Principals Associations have worked on together.

1. You all recall the problem which we had at the end of World War II in trying to provide facilities for the returning GI in Pennsylvania. High-school principals started to seek a solution to the problem. Dr. Anderson, the chairman of this meeting, along with Dr. J. E. Nancarrow, Dr. E. A. Gladfelter, and one or two others met with our executive committee. A number of solutions were worked out by the group.

2. The Pennsylvania Secondary-School Principals Association and the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities have been working on the idea of a uniform admission blank. The Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities adopted the idea and its member institutions agreed to use the standard form recommended by your state Association. I do not know how many colleges are using it, but I hope to check on it and renew our efforts in that direction. I do know that many colleges are using it and all have agreed to use it when their supply of old forms is exhausted.

Several other projects were undertaken; namely a uniform procedure of reporting to the high schools *the admission* of a student at the time of registration and a procedure for reporting grades to the high school upon the request of the high school. Due to the pressure of many activities, I have not been able to follow the progress in these undertakings, but I am trying to establish a procedure whereby we can keep in touch and to carry through on such undertakings.

For the past two years two committees have been at work—one from the Pennsylvania Secondary-School Principals Association and one from the Pennsylvania Association of Liberal Arts Colleges for the advancement of teaching—developing criteria for student teaching. Student teaching appears to be the weakest link in the preparation of teachers. Practice varies greatly among our several institutions. If we can effect an improvement in this area, it will constitute real progress in teacher education. There are many other areas in which joint study and action would be most desirable.

Colleges have a real stake in secondary schools, as they are dependent upon them for their students. The Pennsylvania Secondary-School Principals Association is deeply interested in what their graduates do in college. When we study the mortality in college, we find that theirs is 31.1 per cent loss in junior colleges, 37 per cent loss in men's colleges (over 1,000), 45.2 per cent in women's colleges (over 1,000), 55.5 per cent in men's colleges (under 1,000), 55.7 per cent in co-educational institutions (under 1,000), and 61.1 per cent in co-educational institutions (over 1,000). The average for the nation is 50 per cent. When we stop to think that only one half of those who enter the freshman class in college complete their education, we have

a serious problem requiring the considerate attention of our colleges and secondary schools, especially when we realize the number one reason for not completing their college education is academic failure. Possibly through co-operative study, we could reduce this great waste. Do our best students go on to college? Is there a need to find some way to help the able student who is unable to go to college due to financial reasons?

Pennsylvania is dotted with many colleges and universities, but we have a comparative low percentage of our secondary-school graduates going on to any form of higher education. In terms of our general welfare, this is a serious problem and it should be studied. If we look at the problem further, we find very few girls continue their education after graduation from secondary schools. In Pennsylvania, only three out of every ten students, who go on with advanced study, are girls. It is regrettable that so few women in Pennsylvania are continuing their education. This should be a concern of all of us.

The present emergency, which no doubt will be with us for a long time, poses another problem that requires our attention. It appears that every able-bodied boy will have to give two years of his life to military training. High schools and colleges should convey to our youth the facts and truth relative to the situation; that the situation is not hopeless and that they should take advantage of every opportunity and turn it into something of positive value.

The fact that all boys must give two years to military service means that they will be two years older before starting their life's work. It will be a real problem for those entering the professional fields—teaching, medicine, law, *etc.* Can our American society afford this, or should we be studying the possibilities of acceleration? Possibly the entire educational system from elementary through college and graduate school should be reevaluated in terms of the changing conditions of our American society.

The subject of admission of students to colleges is a concern of both the college and secondary school. The practices of admission vary greatly. Our practice may be doing great injustice to some students. There is no reason why we could not try to establish a better policy and practice. I am thinking of the Secondary-College Agreement plan which is now in operation in Michigan, or even a better plan may be devised.

Soon the high schools will be faced with increased enrollments. By 1958 the vanguard of this increase will be seeking admission to college, reaching its peak about 1965. Shouldn't we be working together now planning for the future?

There are many other areas in which we could work together, such as senior days at college, practices of recruiting football players and other athletes, curriculum studies, guidance problems, and methods of teaching. You no doubt could add many items of which I have not thought.

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

How can we solve some of these problems:

1. The Bureau of Higher Education, which will be set up in the near future, should provide some assistance. This Bureau working with the Bureau of Secondary Education should provide leadership at the state level. At least higher education is recognized as a part of the educational system.

2. A joint committee of high-school principals and college presidents should be established so that problems which are state-wide can be studied and recommendations proposed. On October 23, 1951, the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities passed a resolution calling for the creation of a committee to work with the high-school principals on matters of mutual concern. I feel certain that such a committee will be appointed if it is your desire to go along with the idea.

3. In this connection, it may be desirable to hold occasionally a joint meeting to discuss mutual problems and their solutions. It would also provide an opportunity to learn to know one another better. If we could sit down and discuss our problems, I think we would find that our differences are not great.

4. Many problems are local or regional. Possibly a regional conference would be desirable. There have been individual conferences such as the one at Cedar Crest and the one at Wilson College. It may be desirable for the two organizations to promote regional meetings, so that the colleges and high schools in certain areas could work together.

The college presidents are most willing to work with you. The two groups working together should be able to solve our difficulties and differences. In so doing, we would be advancing the cause of education and the general welfare. The colleges are interested in the whole education system and its improvement. Their first concern is to provide our youth with the best possible education.

We Need More Vocational Education

WILLIAM N. McGOWAN

NEVER before in history has the labor market been so favorable to the qualified job seeker. Industry is begging for men, particularly men with some technical background and training. There are simply more good jobs than qualified men. And it looks like this situation will prevail for some time to come. The armed services are eager for their enlistees and draftees to have some background of technical training, or specific job skills. Opportunities for advancement and service schooling are largely based on this type of experience, or demonstrable aptitude in these areas.

Present circumstances, and those in the foreseeable future demand that the majority of our young men possess job skills and technical training in order to insure happy, successful work experience for themselves, and security for our way of life. Logic dictates that these facts hold extreme significance for the secondary school. Reason demands that the secondary-school educator take a close look at the program his school presents its young people to see if it measures up to the needs of these times.

For fifty or more years educational leaders have demanded that the secondary-school man appraise his program with a view toward making necessary changes in the curriculum and teaching methods. Now, business and industry, the people themselves are demanding such an appraisal. The future of this country may well depend upon whether or not the secondary-school educator will evaluate the secondary-school program in the light of present circumstances and modify that program to provide meaningful learning experiences that will equip young men and women to meet the needs of living today.

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Many metropolitan areas are providing school programs that train young men and women in technical and job skills. However, a recent study made of vocational-program high-school graduates in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, determined that not quite one third of the group graduated were working in the trades for which they were trained. Slightly more than one half of these graduates were working in other trades or trade fields, or in non-related occupations. This indicates a real need for closer co-operation between schools, management, and labor in conducting vocational training programs, and for much better guidance and counseling efforts on the part of schools conducting such programs.

Where metropolitan areas are making a few strides in the direction of a more realistic secondary-school program, rural secondary schools, by and large, are standing still. A recent study of rural education completed by the *New York Times* reports that one out of every four students in rural schools is getting a second-rate education, even according to outmoded traditional standards. The *Times* study brings out what educators in general have long known to be major reasons for this situation—a shortage of qualified teachers, outmoded school plants, insufficient curriculum offerings, and inadequate financing. These circumstances prevail in a large number of the rural schools of the United States. However, there are many rural schools that have lush financial support and could afford a good plant, good teachers, and a good program. These schools in most instances still offer inadequate programs.

It's a complete mystery why the college preparatory program still dominates the rural high-school curriculum in spite of repeated facts demonstrating the low per cent of pupils from these areas who actually go on to college. It's a crime that this situation prevails in view of existing national and international conditions. There are many reasons other than those suggested above as to the general inadequacy of the rural secondary-school program, and its specific weakness in preparing young people with technical or job skills. One reason for weakness in this area of vocational training may be ignorance as to helps, both from the standpoint of curriculum and finance, that are available in instituting a realistic vocational education program. The Federal government offers some assistance in establishing these programs. Some details concerning this type of help are listed below:

1. Federally reimbursed vocational programs are available to states that have a State Plan for vocational education and collect information to assure that local programs comply with the State Plan.
 - a. The State Plan is a description of what the State intends to do to meet its own educational purposes and training needs. The State

outlines and describes in the plan the qualifications and duties of state and local vocational personnel, teacher training facilities, teacher qualifications, minimum standards for plant and equipment, length of courses, types of supervision and coordination, entrance requirements, and standards for curricula and courses of study.

b. This plan, when approved by the U. S. Commissioner of Education, becomes a contract between the State and the Federal government.

2. Assistance may be received from states supporting such a program in these ways:

a. Help in planning, organizing, operating, and evaluating vocational education programs.

b. Help in finding and selecting teachers.

c. Help in improving instruction.

3. Local vocational programs under a Federally supported plan are supported by matching funds supplied at state or local levels. Each dollar of Federal money must be matched by a dollar from state or local funds.

Other helps in instituting practical vocational courses may be obtained from State Departments of Education, the National Education Association, various polytechnic colleges, and *via* co-operation with industry.

Typical of available material that would be helpful in establishing a vocational training program is a 1949 California State Department of Education publication titled *Guide for Industrial Arts Education*. Here is the table of contents from that publication of fifty some pages. It will indicate the degree of information available to the educator who is interested in such programs.

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Acknowledgments

The problem relative to the complete inadequacy of the average rural high-school's curricular offering is not a dearth of material that would assist in the development of a good vocational training program; it revolves around the fore-shortened educational insight of school administrators and the lack of proper training for inadequately paid school teachers. There are some things that can be done about the situation.

1. Administrators serving schools in a contiguous geographical area should "get together" and do these things:
 - a. Develop a class project for high-school seniors of surveying the community for job opportunities.
 - (1) Lists should be made of all occupations practiced in the community.
 - (2) Lists should be made of the numbers of individuals employed in each occupation.
 - (3) Future job opportunities should be estimated and listed.
 - b. A study should be made to determine the number of students planning to go on to college, those who plan to get married upon graduation, those who plan to stay and find work in the community, and those who plan to leave the community to find work—and the type of work for which they intend to look.
2. The results of these studies should be properly organized and discussed; then the school curriculum should be evaluated to see how nearly it is preparing the young people of the community to do the things indicated that they can, or want to do upon leaving high school.
3. Next steps should include:
 - a. Making tentative plans as to what to do about the findings of these studies.
 - b. Discussing findings with school boards, trustees, the PTA, and other interested community groups. These groups should be asked to make recommendations as to what to do about the findings.
 - c. Evaluate and reconcile lay-group recommendations and tentative plans made by administrators to modify the curriculum in light of study findings.
 - d. Marshal all available helps in terms of material and consultant service to attack problem of modifying the curriculum.
 - e. Go to work.

Secondary-school people, especially in rural areas, must "get up with the times." An effort must be made to provide a more realistic curriculum for the high-school young people of today's world. More adequate vocational training would seem to be a step in the right direction.

America's Intellectual Resources

DAEL WOLFE

This and the following article, "Supply of and Demand for Engineers," describe the urgent need for trained personnel in critical areas in our nation. We appeal to all principals, counselors, and teachers of secondary schools to influence and encourage promising boys and girls to be interested in the fields of teaching, nursing, medicine, science, and engineering. The shortages are so great now and will continue so for the next few years that all competent and qualified youth will find unusual life opportunities in these professional areas and the further privilege of rewarding service.—*The Editor.*

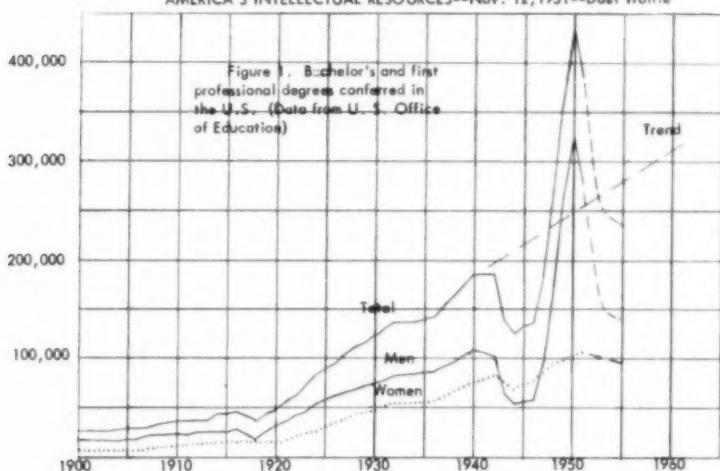
THERE are approximately six million college graduates in the United States. Not all of them can be counted among the country's intellectual assets and not all of our intellectually able people are college graduates. But college training is becoming so nearly universal as a requirement for work in the natural and social sciences, the professions, the humanities, education, and even some fields of business, that the easiest rough estimate of the total number of people able to exercise intellectual leadership in the nation is the number with four or more years of college education. The six million college graduates can, therefore, be taken as an approximation of the size of the group able and trained to direct and improve the country's complex social, governmental, industrial, educational, and military machinery.

A large fraction of our college-trained people are still young. In fact some twenty-five per cent of the six million have received their degrees since the end of World War II. Figure I below shows the rising curve of college degrees from 1900 to our entrance into World War II, the sharp dip during the war years, the spectacular postwar rise, the drop beginning this year now that the peak of the GI bulge has passed, and an estimate of the numbers of degrees likely to be conferred dur-

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ing the next four years. Comparing the actual numbers of degrees with the trend line shown in Figure 1 indicates that in another two years we can expect to have approximately as many college trained people as we might have had, had there been no World War II and no postwar crowding of the colleges. Nevertheless there is a deficit, for two reasons. First is the fact that the people getting degrees since the war have, on the average, been older. Their professional lives are going to be shorter. They cannot work as scientists, engineers, or other types of trained specialists as long as they might have, had the war

AMERICA'S INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES--Nov. 12, 1951--Dael Wolfe



not postponed their training. Even so, we are fortunate to have had the great influx of veterans into the colleges for they greatly increase our ability to meet the current demands. Second is the fact that demands have increased. A population growing more rapidly than we expected twenty or thirty years ago, rapid technological change, mobilization, and the increased responsibility we have necessarily assumed in aiding other parts of the world contribute to a heightened demand for experts in many fields. We must, therefore, examine our resources to see what our future supply is likely to be.

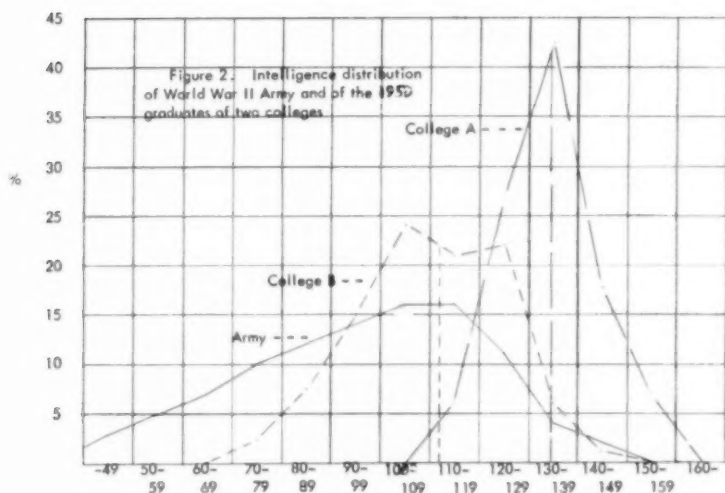
OUR FUTURE RESOURCES

The pool from which future college students must be drawn is the group of boys and girls moving through the elementary and secondary schools. Not all of this group will get to college; not all of them should.

But in assessing our intellectual resources, it is desirable to estimate the number of school youngsters who have the intellectual ability required for satisfactory college work and then to analyze school records to determine how many potentially good students actually get into college and how many drop out somewhere along the way.

The Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training has recently made these estimates. By comparing the distribution of intelligence test scores of college graduates with the distribution of intelligence test scores of younger groups of students, we have estimated that about a third of the children starting in the first grade could continue through to earn bachelors degrees. They have the intellectual ability; they can become college graduates if they also have the motivation, the opportunity, the money, and the interest in education which must all exist together in the same person if a degree is to be earned. The estimate that one third of all first-grade pupils have the intellectual potential for college work is based on our estimate that three fourths of all college students make test scores above that represented by an IQ of about 107 or a score on the Army General Classification Test of about 110. The bottom one fourth trails off to lower, in a few cases to much lower, scores. The bottom fourth, therefore, includes people who earn degrees as a result of unusually high motivation, persistence, or opportunity. For estimating purposes, therefore, we have taken the score exceeded by three fourths of college graduates. On this basis, it turns out that about one third of all children make intelligence test scores high enough to indicate that they can be considered as potential college material.

The figure one third is a liberal estimate. If we confined ourselves to top quality college students, we would estimate the potential at considerably less than one third of the total group of children. But colleges do not confine themselves to top quality students. Some colleges are highly selective in their admission standards, but there are enough with lower requirements so that the total group of graduates includes a sizable number of people who are not far above the average of the total population. Figure 2, below, provides an illustration. In that figure, the curves show distributions of intelligence of enlisted men serving during World War II and of the 1950 graduates of two colleges. To anticipate your questions concerning these two colleges, let me say that they are extremes. One is very good and the other is very bad, but they are neither the best nor the worst in the country. And one of them illustrates why, in estimating the average intelligence of American college graduates, we have to include provision for a good many holders of the bachelors degree who are not of outstandingly high intelli-

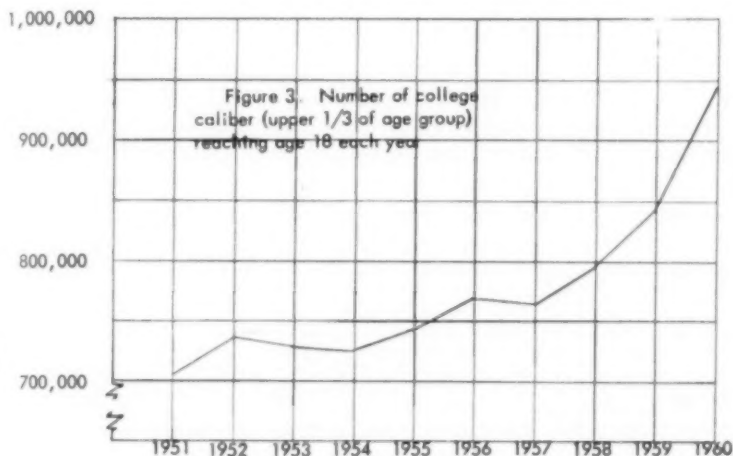


gence. In fact, twenty-five per cent of the graduates of College B were below the median score of World War II Army enlisted men.

Although one third of the first-grade pupils can be considered in the college potential group, by no means do a third of them ever get to college. You are all familiar with figures showing the percentage of students who drop out of school. Those figures vary from time to time and depend somewhat upon how they are computed. Our own estimates, made recently and intended to apply to current conditions, are as follows: of all the children who start to school, about 88 per cent finish elementary school; about fifty-five per cent finish high school; some twenty-two per cent start to college; and about ten or eleven per cent are graduated from college.

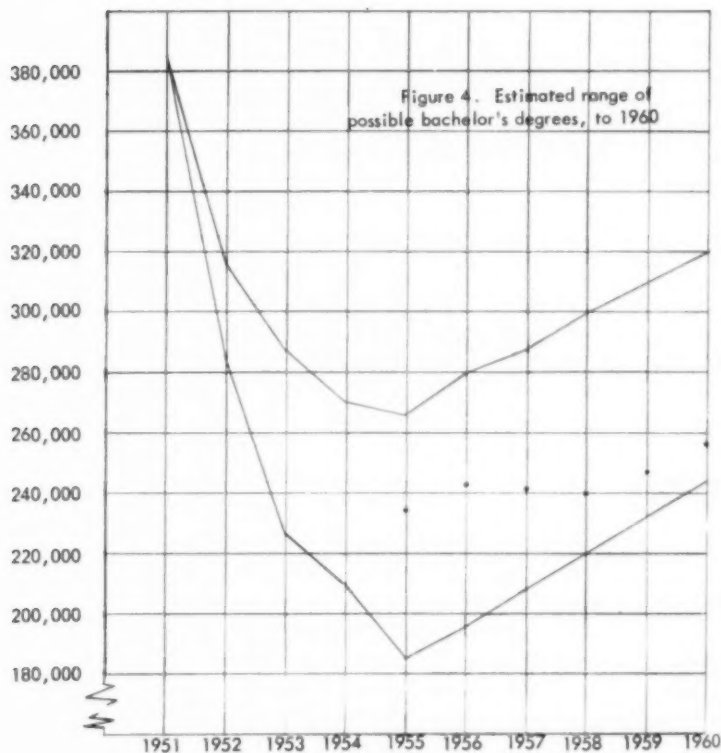
These are overall figures. The likelihood of remaining in school is greater for good students than for poor ones; greater for students from homes high on the socio-economic scale than for those from homes low on that scale; and greater for students high in intelligence than for students low in intelligence. We have, therefore, also attempted to estimate the school survival rates for the upper third, in terms of intelligence. The estimates for this superior group are as follows: practically all—maybe as many as ninety-nine per cent—finish eighth grade; about eighty per cent finish high school; about forty per cent enter college; and about twenty to twenty-two per cent are graduated from college. Said in another way, practically all of the children who are po-

tentially good college material finish the eighth grade, but about a fifth of them drop out during high school. Another two fifths finish high school but do not go on to college. Another fifth drops out during college. And one fifth earns college degrees. These figures state quantitatively what we all know, that our colleges now train only a fraction of the people who have the intellectual ability for college work.



This information provides a background for attempting to project the future size of the pool of college material and the future number of college students. The first of these projections is comparatively easy. It is shown in Figure 3, above. That curve shows for each year up to 1960 the anticipated total number of young men and women who will reach 18 and who will have the intelligence necessary for college work.

The second projection, shown in Figure 4, purports to estimate the number who will actually earn college degrees for each year up to 1960. Because we do not know exactly what changes will occur in the percentages graduating from high school, entering college, and graduating from college, and, because we do not know just how drastically military requirements will decrease or postpone college graduation, this curve is shown as a band rather than as a line. If our assumptions are reasonable, it gives an estimate of the upper and lower limits within which we can expect college graduation totals to fall during the next nine years.



There are many indications that the projected number of college graduates will not be large enough to meet the anticipated demands. There is no evidence that the demand is not going to keep on increasing in the next few years as it has in the past. The shortage of engineers is common knowledge. The industrial expansion planned for mobilization purposes will bring about a still greater demand for scientists and engineers. That doctors and nurses are in short supply is well known. The baby boom of the past ten years has already produced an increase in the demand for elementary-school teachers. It will increase the demand for secondary-school teachers beginning about five years from now. How well we are able to meet these future demands will depend upon the extent to which we train bright boys and girls for work in the fields which require college education. There are several factors which will tend to increase the number of college de-

grees. There are other factors which will tend to draw people away from college. Let us briefly examine both sets of factors.

FACTORS INCREASING THE NUMBER OF COLLEGE GRADUATES

The first factor tending to increase the number of bright students going to college is the historical trend of extending the years of education. Over past decades we have witnessed the steadily increasing percentages of students finishing elementary school, finishing high school, and finishing college. For each individual student, the decision whether to drop out of school or to continue longer is influenced by the education of his parents, the educational plans of his friends, and the general social climate in which he grows up. As the average amount of schooling goes up, so do the educational standards we set for our children. The situation is, therefore, a cumulative one. As more parents have more education, more of them expect higher education for their children. As more high-school students plan to go to college, more of their friends decide that they too are going to college. Unless positively interfered with by such counter forces as mobilization demands, we can count on this trend to continue to increase the sizes of our colleges and of our graduating classes.

The second factor tending to increase the number of college students is scholarships. In recognition of the growing demands for various kinds of specialists, there has been an increasing amount of money available to aid needy students to secure college training. The GI bill, the prospects of similar help for future veterans, the ROTC, the Navy's Holloway Plan, the subsidies from government agencies for graduate students in critically short fields, and the current talk of a national scholarship bill are all indications of this trend.

Through Congress, foundations, and other agencies, we can increase still further the amount of scholarship aid. Most of us would consider it desirable to do so. In considering such programs, however, we should make more money available at the undergraduate level, for the greatest loss of talent occurs between high-school graduation and college entry. We should not restrict scholarships to students in particular fields, such as the "defense-related" fields. Such restrictions are bound to be made in terms of the obvious needs of the moment rather than in terms of the as-yet-unrecognized needs of the future. The failure in the thirties to anticipate the critical importance of nuclear physicists, or in the early forties to recognize the need for area specialists, is frequently cited but still cogent illustrations of the difficulty of predicting the future importance of the different occupational fields.

Advertising is a third factor. Perhaps the most vigorous current effort in this direction is the work of the Engineers Joint Council. Faced by a large shortage of engineers—a shortage which is going to be even greater in the next few years—the Engineers Joint Council has attempted to inform high-school students of the opportunities in engineering and to persuade larger numbers of them to enter engineering schools. As signs of this effort, one sees guidance literature for high-school counselors and one hears spot announcements on radio and television programs aimed toward increasing the flow of engineering students.

The fourth factor is the influence which schools themselves have on the educational choices and plans of their students. It is not always easy to understand why differences from one school system to another are as great as they are, but it is easy to point out how large those differences can be. Why, for example, do three fourths of the fifth-grade pupils in Montana stay in school until they reach the twelfth grade while only half of the North Dakota fifth-grade pupils stay in school that long? Why do twenty-one per cent of the high-school juniors in one town list mathematics as their favorite subject while only two per cent in a nearby and similar town list mathematics as their favorite subject? Or, to go up the educational ladder a little farther, why does New York University, with nearly thirty times as many students as Oberlin, turn out no more graduates who go on to earn Ph.D.'s in science than does Oberlin? Such questions may not be easy to answer, but it is important to answer them as well as we can, for on our answers will depend the steps we take in attempting to meet the demands of future years.

SUGGESTIONS FOR INCREASING THE NUMBER OF COLLEGE GRADUATES

What guidance, motivational, and educational processes can high schools use to increase the number of bright students who remain in school until they have earned college degrees? Without attempting to analyze them completely, several possibilities are suggested.

Early identification of the ablest should help. Practically all bright children are still in school at the ninth-grade level, and are still sufficiently flexible in their ambitions to be influenced by guidance. Before occupational goals become crystallized, it would seem worthwhile to identify the ablest and to begin encouraging them to plan on securing as much training as is necessary to let them work at the high levels of which they are capable. There is a good deal of controversy over the wisdom of telling students the scores they make on intelligence and aptitude tests. Nevertheless, it would seem desirable to use that information in discussions with the student, with his parents,

and with his teachers—use it in conjunction with information on scholarship records if you like and do not give the exact scores if you think that unwise—but use it as a basis for positive encouragement of the ablest to continue in school. Moreover, such information can be used to give guidance on the choice of high-school subjects. With the multiplicity of courses offered by high schools, we can attempt to guide the brightest students into channels which will stimulate their intellectual curiosity and give them more of an urge to continue.

There are other ways of giving special attention to the most promising high-school students. For some time I have wondered whether the segregation of a group of bright youngsters into a separate high school—as is done in the Bronx High School of Science in New York—resulted in interesting a larger percentage in continuing their education in college than would be true if the same bright youngsters were scattered through a number of more traditional high schools. I do not know. But we are arranging with Dr. Meister of the Bronx High School of Science for a study of their graduates which, I hope, will provide information on that point.

The teacher's influence is another factor to be considered. There is frequent reason to feel discouraged on the point, but we know that teachers do have some influence, sometimes, over their students. Goodrich, Knapp, and their associates at Wesleyan University have been studying one aspect of this problem at the college level. Starting from an inquiry into the undergraduate origins of men and women listed in the biographical directory, *American Men of Science*, they soon became convinced that a large part of the variation from school to school and from time to time in the same school should be attributed to the influences exerted by different teachers. They, therefore, attempted to secure information on what kinds of undergraduate teachers stimulate unusually large numbers of students to go on into graduate work in the sciences. From colleagues, students and former students, and from personal visits, they collected information. In summary, they conclude: "...a successful teacher of science usually is not especially distinguished for his mastery of superficial pedagogic skills. Rather, the successful teachers are marked by three cardinal traits: masterfulness, warmth, and professional dignity. It would appear that the success of such teachers rests mainly upon their capacity to assume a father role to their students, in the best sense, and to inspire them to an emulation of the teacher's achievements" (*Scientific American*, 185, July 1951, 17).

There may be somewhat similar studies at the secondary-school level. If so, I have not found them. But that there are large differ-

ences is clear. We have been analyzing some data from a number of Illinois high schools. In one town, we found that mathematics was the favorite subject of two per cent of the high-school juniors. In another town, it was the favorite subject of twenty-one per cent of the juniors. Differences in intelligence between the two groups were not large enough to explain why ten times as many students in one school as in the other chose mathematics as the favorite subject. Neither were the differences in the socio-economic backgrounds of the pupils; the occupational patterns of the two towns are fairly similar. In interest in science, the two towns were reversed; in one high school fourteen per cent of the juniors considered science to be their favorite subject; while in the other town, six per cent listed science as the favorite subject. The town with more students listing science as the favorite subject had fewer listing mathematics as the favorite subject, and *vice versa*. It is reasonable to attribute a considerable portion of these differences to the influences exerted by different teachers. A stimulating and well-liked mathematics teacher makes mathematics a favored subject. A dull and disliked teacher has the opposite effect. One of the things to consider in thinking of ways to increase the number of students planning careers in science and engineering is the ability and personality of high-school teachers of mathematics and science. These factors influence students' attitudes.

While we go about attempting to increase the number of able students continuing their education in college, we know that there will be two strong forces working in the opposite direction. The first is mobilization. The simple arithmetic of the problem of maintaining an armed force of three and a half million men leaves no room for able-bodied young men in college until after they have served a period of military service. Special provisions may continue to be made, for the danger of interrupting completely the college education of young men is obvious, and some form of GI Bill may increase the number returning to college after a period of military service. But, of this we can be certain: maintaining our national goal of an armed force of three and a half million men will make it impossible for every bright student to go to college when he wants to.

Related also to our mobilization planning is the projected increase in the size of the labor force. There will be more jobs. Those jobs will pay good wages. Boys and girls graduating from high school and young men finishing military service will in many cases be more strongly tempted by the independence and immediate earnings that those jobs offer than they will be by the longer-term advantages of college training.

Briefly, and in conclusion, the situation which faces us is this: the demand for scientists, engineers, and other college trained specialists is high and will remain high. We are not getting into the colleges anything like all of the young men and women who have the intellectual ability for college work. Now that the postwar flood of GI's is approaching an end, the number of new graduates is beginning to drop. It will continue to drop for the next few years, and for some time to come will remain well below the 1949 to 1951 peak, for the depressed birth rates of the thirties mean that there will be relatively small numbers of boys and girls reaching college age during the next seven or eight years. The military services and a high level of industrial production will make strong claims on young men and women and will tend still further to depress the numbers going to college.

At the same time, the historical trend is in the direction of increasing amounts of education and we know some ways which we think may motivate more of the ablest students to want to earn college degrees. Just how this combination of forces will work out will, to a considerable extent, be determined by national policy and international events over which we as individuals have little if any control. But those are not the only influences at work; how many college trained specialists we produce will also depend in part upon how teachers, school administrators, and guidance officers influence individual students who are potentially good scientists, good engineers, or specialists in other fields. In Figure 4, a band represents the range of possibilities for the number of college graduates in the next few years. Where actuality will lie will be determined in part by the ways in which the high schools of the country motivate and guide the able students who come under their influence in the years when each is deciding at how high a level he, and the nation, will use his capacities.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Approximately twelve in every one thousand children between the ages of seven and seventeen came to the attention of the juvenile courts because of delinquency in 1949 according to a recent study by the U. S. Children's Bureau. While the average age of children involved in delinquency cases was about 15½ years, almost 75% of the children were 14 or older, with boys outnumbering girls by four to one. Copies of this report are available without charge from the U. S. Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C.

Supply of and Demand for Engineers

MAYNARD M. BORING

UNFORTUNATELY, the term "engineer" has, throughout industrial history, been misunderstood and has been applied to a number of occupations that are far from professional. We think of locomotive engineers and stationary engineers in the same category as the professional man with a full technical education. The professions of law and medicine are thoroughly understood by the public. Our failure to glamorize engineering is to a certain extent responsible for the critical shortage which we now face. Much information has been published, especially during the past few months, in an attempt to call to the attention of the general public that, in a critical war or defense situation, the engineer must play an important part, not only in the utilization of highly complex technical devices used by the armed forces but also in industry to develop and produce more fire power than potential enemies can accumulate.

The engineering profession is relatively new, since in 1890 there were only about 28,000 professional engineers in the country. Even so, the engineer has had a tremendous impact on the production of all types of equipment and on our standard of living. Practically every device that we use today has back of it strong engineering thinking and development. It is the engineer's role to take the basic exploratory researches of the scientists and to put them to work. Studies made by Ewan Clague, U. S. Department of Labor Statistics, indicate clearly that the engineer has greatly lessened the burden of physical labor by supplying the worker with power driven tools. In 1890 there were approximately 290 workers per engineer while in 1948 there were only 68 workers per engineer. In other words, we have increased the amount of production per worker by many hundreds of per cent and, at the same time, we are using a great many less workers than ever before.

Over the short period of the last half century, the engineering profession has constantly increased until the beginning of World War II.

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At this time the engineer really began to show his effect on the production of extremely complicated devices. In World War I, the airplane (at that time a simple device) was hardly used except for observation purposes. In World War II, it became a major weapon using automatic fire-control systems. It was increased enormously in size, speed, and weight-carrying capacity. In fact, it became almost a piece of artillery. All of this was accomplished in a relatively short time through the efforts of the engineer. We have greatly increased our horizon by the use of radar and sonar, all of this in addition to a greatly expanded demand on the part of the general public for better appliances, for more power, better transportation, communication, *etc.*

At the present time we must continue to maintain a strong peacetime economy together with the problem of arming not only our own country but also other friendly nations. The development of atomic energy, the possibility of atomic weapons, airplanes, and submarines, and the complexity of the ultra modern planes, ships, *etc.* are greatly expanding the need for technically trained personnel. The new B-36 bomber is infinitely more complicated than the B-29 of World War II.

Faced with the possibility of a major conflict with the hordes from the over-populated countries under the control of communism, we must depend on the military devices of the very latest designs, as we will never be able to match their manpower. Coupled with this greatly increased demand, we are faced, as you know, with a serious declining supply. Several factors are responsible for this decline, the greatest of which is the fact that the secondary schools are now graduating those youngsters who were born during the depression years of the early 1930's. At that time the birth rate was seriously low and, consequently, our supply of young high-school students now is very short. One of the great difficulties, as indicated earlier, is that we have not glamorized the engineering profession as we have law, medicine, and other professions. As a result, the percentage of young people entering the engineering colleges has been dropping seriously. Our survival may well depend on encouraging larger numbers of qualified young people in the secondary schools to continue their education. This places an increasing responsibility on science teachers and all guidance counselors in the secondary schools. Too many young people look at the high wages paid high-school graduates. This fact is probably taking away from the engineering colleges a good number of well-qualified candidates. The proposed universal military training law is undoubtedly causing many young men to wait until they have finished their service to enter college. Many are afraid of the high attrition rates in the engineering schools. This high attrition rate should be investi-

gated thoroughly. We know that only about one half of the loss between the freshman and the senior year in college is due to academic failure. This attrition can be materially reduced by better guidance and possible financial assistance to those young people who fall by the wayside.

It is very important today that we encourage increasing numbers of young women to enter the engineering and science professions. The numbers of young women in these professions has been woefully small. In fact, in 1951, surveys indicate there were slightly over 50 young women who received engineering degrees. Industry can use young women engineers and although there is always the barrier of marriage, young women engineers will find plenty of opportunity. It is a known fact that we will have a shrinkage in the number of engineers and that in 1954 approximately only 16,000 will be graduated. The peacetime demand of industry, not taking into account the needs of the armed forces, is about 30,000 per year. Studies of the present high-school classes indicate that it will probably be 1960 before we will approach an even balance between supply and demand.

The A.S.E.E. are trying to develop a pattern whereby, at all section meetings throughout the country, secondary-school personnel be invited to participate in a study of this problem. I feel that every science teacher, administrator, and guidance counselor in the secondary school should make every effort to encourage all young qualified people to enroll in engineering or science colleges and to complete at least their B.S. degree.

A recent article published by President MacMillen of A.I.E.E. (also Professor of E.E. at Oregon State), stated that well over 50 per cent of young students who applied for engineering at Oregon State were deficient in mathematics. It appears that too many times our secondary-school students do not develop a pattern for their life work until their last year in high school and then it is too late for them to take the necessary math and science to prepare for engineering. Yet, especially in the industrial eastern part of the country, a very high percentage of our high-school students will eventually make their living in some kind of manufacturing venture. All of these young people, whether they are going to be mechanics, draftsmen, tool makers, or enter any of the other so-called supporting skills, will find that math and science are just as valuable as though they were going on to an engineering or science college. This would indicate that we might well take a hard look not only at our engineering college curriculum but also at the curriculum of our secondary schools. It is difficult for me, although I speak from a prejudiced viewpoint, to understand how a youngster can consider his

education complete even at the secondary-school level without some algebra, geometry, physics, and chemistry.

We in industry find our major stumbling block in developing young people. In order to overcome these handicaps, we have organization training courses. In discussions with engineering and scientific people and with secondary-school personnel, there seems to be a tendency for each to blame the other. Apparently there is much to be desired in fundamentals, even in the primary schools. Only by getting together and by a thorough study of the problem can we increase the supply that is so vital not only to our national economy but also possibly to our survival.

We carry this message to you teachers as your responsibility to take back to your community to sell to the general public, to your board of education, and to your state education system. We are all working hard to bring about a better understanding of the engineer and his place in society.

WORK EXPERIENCE

The following twelve recommendations for an effective secondary-school program of work experience are listed in *Vitalizing Secondary Education* (pp. 92-96), a publication of the U. S. Office of Education:

1. The school and work-experience program should be adopted as an integral part of the total school program.
2. A well-qualified co-ordinator is needed to direct the work program.
3. The program must not be used for a "catch-all" for academic misfits. Rather, all pupils should have some work training.
4. Care must be taken not to exploit youth in respect to hours of labor or wages.
5. Standards for evaluating pupils progress and school credit must be clearly defined and used.
6. The program must be interpreted to the public.
7. The program should be well-planned, based on well-defined needs and clearly stated purposes.
8. The program should not be started on too large a scale.
9. Individual differences among pupils determine the combined school and work load which pupils can carry, and the kinds of work in which each finds educational value.
10. Care must be taken not to deprive pupils of the chance to participate in other important school activities.
11. Precautions should be taken to avoid a school and work load so heavy that it endangers the physical and mental health of pupils.
12. Provisions should be made for capitalizing upon the work experience of pupils for vitalizing class instruction.

High School Seniors Attitudes Toward Teachers and the Teaching Profession

PAUL R. COBB

FREQUENTLY teachers wonder what high-school students think of their methods, practices, and personalities, in and out of the school room. It is out of such musings and deliberations that this thesis¹ has evolved. The study was limited to: high-school seniors during 1950 enrolled in high schools within a reasonable radius of Fort Hays Kansas State College and within cities of the second and third classes only.

The problem of analyzing human attitudes and motives is very complex, for often the individual is not fully aware of the influences back of his decisions. The real reason for what he does may consciously or unconsciously be suppressed. The reliability of this type of data should not be accepted as absolute, for we are limited to aspects of attitude which may be used to compare seniors by the "more or less" type of judgment. For example, one may say understandably, "One senior is more strongly opposed to teachers' drinking than another, or that one senior is more strongly in favor of teachers' remaining single through the school term than others." The measurements are based upon the endorsement or the rejection of the statement. The oral or written expression is the opinion, and the interpretation of the opinion is the attitude. Attitude, as used here, is the "mind-set" which high-school seniors have or take toward or against teachers and the teaching profession, as revealed in their reactions toward the statements in the questionnaire.

The method herein employed is primarily of the survey type. The data were obtained from those concerned through: (1) questionnaires,

¹ An abstract of a thesis written as a requirement for a master's degree, Fort Hays Kansas State College, 1950.

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(2) correspondence, and (3) personal interviews. The method followed in the formation of the questionnaires and scale in relation to attitudes, is similar to that used by Likert.³

One thousand one hundred fifty three questionnaires, each consisting of 66 questions which could be answered by underscoring the word(s) *strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree*, were sent to 61 public high schools, and a value of from one to five was given to each possible answer, respectively, thus giving each answer a mathematical value. To construct a chart upon which to tabulate the 66 statements and questions from 1000 seniors necessitated a sheet of paper 45 feet long and 3 feet wide, marked off in 66,000 one-half inch squares. The questions numbered from 1 to 66 were placed along the top above each column. The answers of each senior were then tabulated in separate squares.

Since the seniors were promised anonymity and all information of a personal nature was to be kept confidential, it is reasonable to believe that the information given is relatively accurate and valid. In the absence of a more reliable procedure of evaluating seniors' attitudes, the acceptance of the individual's own response for the decisions he makes will have to suffice even though there may be some element of weakness.

Out of the 1000 seniors who responded, 514 were boys, 486 were girls. There were 28 boys and 52 girls who were 16 years of age; 353 boys and 373 girls, 17 years of age; 109 boys and 59 girls, 18 years of age; 20 boys and 1 girl, 19 years of age; 2 boys and 1 girl, 20 years of age; 1 boy, 21 years of age; and 1 boy, 30 years of age. The average age of the boys is 17.28, and for the girls, 17.03.

It has been the intent of the writer to organize and present the data in simple forms and compilations so that the implications and information may be readily recognized and understood. Following are the attitudes of 1000 high-school seniors toward teachers and teaching as revealed by the questionnaires:

1. *Teachers as a whole are friendly.* (91.0% agree; 5.8% undecided; 3.2% disagree.)
2. *From my own experiences the strictest teacher is the best teacher.* (37.4% agree; 16.3% undecided; 46.3% disagree.)
3. *Women teachers should be single.* (16.2% agree; 26.6% undecided; 57.2% disagree.) These data seem to discount the "old" idea that women teachers should be single.

³Renis Likert, "A Technique for the Measurements of Attitudes," *Archives of Psychology*, 22: 37, June 1932.

4. *Teachers are well paid in comparison with other professions.* (33.1% agree; 20.2% undecided; 46.7% disagree.) These figures show that seniors believe teachers do not receive the wages to which they are entitled in comparison to other occupations. This could mean that in the future, when these seniors assume places of responsibility such as school boards, voters, and citizens, the salaries of the teachers may be adjusted to more nearly compare with those of other professions.
5. *Teachers are old-fashioned in their teaching methods and techniques.* (14.1% agree; 20.5% undecided; 65.4% disagree.) From these percentages, it appears that seniors are largely agreed that the instructional methods and techniques used by the teacher are up-to-date.
6. *Most teachers act like dictators in the classroom.* (21.2% agree; 14.7% undecided; 64.1% disagree.)
7. *High-school teachers should be dismissed when fifty years of age.* (51.7% agree; 18.2% undecided; 30.1% disagree.) It is interesting to note that these seniors apparently like the younger teachers better.
8. *The teacher I like best is not the best teacher.* (34.4% agree; 17.4% undecided; 48.2% disagree.)
9. *Teachers should not smoke.* (35.7% agree; 20.4% undecided; 43.9% disagree.) The trend of censorship seems to be away from the traditional standards of our fathers. In question 53, the senior was asked, "Do you smoke?" 596 replied that they never smoke, 254 replied that they smoke occasionally, and 150 said they smoke regularly. In comparing the 404 seniors who smoke with the 439 who think it is all right for teachers to smoke, we find there is a difference of 35. In other words, as far as numbers go, all seniors who smoke believe it is all right for teachers to smoke, and in addition, 35 others who do not smoke think it permissible for the teacher.
10. *It is permissible for teachers to drink.* (25.0% agree; 18.0% undecided; 57.0% disagree.) Seniors are stronger in their attitude toward teachers drinking than they are in their attitude toward smoking. In question 64, the senior was asked, "Do you drink?" 571 replied that they never drink, 401 that they drink occasionally, and 28 that they drink regularly. In comparing the 250 seniors who think it permissible for teachers to drink with the 429 seniors who drink, we find, as far as figures go, that there were 179 seniors who, although they themselves drink occasionally or regularly, believe it is wrong for teachers to drink.

11. *Teachers are glad when 4:00 o'clock comes so the brats can go home.* (40.5% agree; 26.4% undecided; 33.1% disagree.) For some reason or other, the teachers' overt actions have been such that they have influenced the attitude of a large number of the seniors.
12. *More grammar should be taught in high school.* (43.9% agree; 13.8% undecided; 42.3% disagree.) Strictly speaking, this statement pertains to curriculum more than to teachers and teaching, yet oftentimes grammar is disliked because the teacher is disliked, or the methods are poor. It is significant, however, that 439 seniors think that more grammar should be taught.
13. *Teachers usually look on the dark side of life.* (13.9% agree; 17.5% undecided; 68.6% disagree.) It appears that a large majority of the seniors are agreed that teachers are optimists rather than pessimists.
14. *Teachers dislike using new methods in teaching.* (21.8% agree; 18.6% undecided; 59.6% disagree.) Seniors are inclined to believe teachers are ready and willing to use new and better methods.
15. *Teachers usually gossip about their pupils' infatuations and love affairs.* (39.7% agree; 19.0% undecided; 41.3% disagree.)
16. *Teachers are too interested in dry book knowledge to interest students.* (31.9% agree; 17.0% undecided; 51.1% disagree.)
17. *Married women make better teachers than single women.* (30.3% agree; 38.5% undecided; 31.2% disagree.)
18. *Teachers feel inferior when associating with people of other professions.* (8.1% agree; 25.9% undecided; 66.0% disagree.)
19. *Our teachers tell us all we should know about sex life and sex problems.* (15.3% agree; 10.8% undecided; 73.9% disagree.) The attitude of the senior in relation to teaching "family life" indicates that a large majority of them—739—would appreciate a better understanding of boy-girl relationships, courtship and marriage, home and family, and so forth.
20. *The teaching profession is inferior to other professions.* (10.0% agree; 24.3% undecided; 65.7% disagree.) The seniors are largely agreed that teaching is not inferior to other professions, although 100 think it is, and 243 are undecided.
21. *Married men make better teachers than single men.* (40.6% agree; 31.9% undecided; 27.5% disagree.)
22. *I enjoy the fellowship of my teachers.* (71.1% agree; 15.6% undecided; 13.3% disagree.) It is a natural characteristic for seniors to enjoy the fellowship of their teachers.
23. *Teachers are jealous of one another.* (24.8% agree; 25.5% undecided; 49.7% disagree.)

24. *People think less of a teacher who dates during the school term.* (23.0% agree; 16.9% undecided; 60.1% disagree.)
25. *All high-school curricula should include algebra and geometry.* (59.5% agree; 15.3% undecided; 25.2% disagree.) Strictly speaking, this statement pertains to curriculum perhaps more than to teachers and teaching, yet oftentimes algebra and geometry are disliked because the teacher has poor methods or has ways that the seniors dislike.
26. *Teachers should not marry during the school term.* (34.0% agree; 19.0% undecided; 47.0% disagree.)
27. *Many teachers cannot make good in other professions; therefore, they teach.* (17.1% agree; 13.5% undecided; 69.4% disagree.)
28. *Most teachers are irritable and cross.* (14.4% agree; 12.0% undecided; 73.6% disagree.)
29. *Older teachers are better teachers than younger teachers.* (17.0% agree; 19.5% undecided; 63.5% disagree.)
30. *The facial expression of most teachers is distressing.* (21.3% agree; 26.0% undecided; 52.7% disagree.)
31. *Teaching is a lazy person's job.* (7.1% agree; 10.2% undecided; 82.7% disagree.)
32. *Teachers are always glad to assist each other.* (61.6% agree; 22.3% undecided; 16.1% disagree.)
33. *Teachers should go to church regularly.* (75.2% agree; 20.7% undecided; 4.1% disagree.)
34. *Good-looking teachers are poor teachers.* (3.0% agree; 14.5% undecided; 82.5% disagree.)

From the foregoing analysis it is quite evident that the attitudes of high-school seniors toward teachers and the teaching profession in general are favorable. However, their attitudes are not so favorable as to merit their choosing teaching as a profession, for out of the 1000 seniors, the attitudes of only 88 were such that they have indicated a desire to teach.

The following figures show the choices of teaching levels of seniors who have chosen teaching as a profession: 57 of the seniors have chosen to teach at the secondary level and 31 have chosen the elementary level. There are 3 boys who have chosen to teach at the elementary level, and 28 girls. At the secondary level, 20 boys and 37 girls have made their choice. The girls are divided between the secondary and elementary level, 37 to 28, while the boys prefer the secondary level 20 to 3.

Attitudes of Teachers and Pupils Toward a High School Course In Psychology

T. L. ENGLE

A RECENT survey by the writer has indicated that psychology is taught as a separate subject of instruction in the high schools of 34 states. Furthermore, officials in state departments of public instruction have indicated that even in those states in which psychology is not taught as a separate subject, psychological material is presented in various other courses. There is a very considerable volume of journal literature suggesting that psychology is meeting with favor among both teachers and pupils. A bibliography of such literature will be found at the close of the present article.

PROCEDURE AND EXTENT OF THE SURVEY

In the spring of 1951 a questionnaire was sent to 453 high-school teachers of psychology. The mailing list was furnished by state department of public instruction officials. Usable replies were received from 147 teachers in 26 states. Of this number, 94 were men, 29 were single women, 24 were married women.

The teachers were asked to administer a rating scale to the pupils in their psychology classes. Some of the teachers were not offering a course in psychology during the semester in which the questionnaire was received, but ratings were received from 2,783 pupils from 97 schools in 24 states. There were 1,190 boys and 1,593 girls.

Of the 147 teachers, 62.1 per cent indicated that their course in psychology was offered to pupils in the twelfth grade, 17.2 per cent

This report is part of a survey sponsored by the Committee on the Teaching of Social Psychology, Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (A division of the American Psychological Association). The writer, who is Associate Professor of Psychology at Indiana University, Fort Wayne, Indiana Center, served as chairman of a project on the teaching of psychology in high schools. Professor Victor H. Noll of Michigan State College served on the project.

stated that the course was offered in the eleventh grade, and 19.3 per cent stated that it was open to pupils in both the eleventh and twelfth grades. Only 1.4 per cent taught the course to pupils in the tenth and eleventh grades combined. None taught it in the ninth grade.

The purpose of the questionnaire and rating scale was to learn something of the attitudes of both teachers and pupils toward a high-school course in psychology.

GENERAL OPINIONS OF TEACHERS OF PSYCHOLOGY

Teachers were asked, "In your opinion, what is the attitude of pupils toward their course in psychology?" Five responses were possible. Of the 147 teachers, 53.2 per cent responded, "Very favorable"; 38.3 per cent responded, "Favorable"; and 8.5 per cent responded, "About the same as toward other courses." Not a single teacher responded by "Unfavorable" or "Very unfavorable." That this opinion of the favorable attitude of pupils toward a high-school course in psychology is actually the attitude of pupils is indicated later in the present report.

The survey revealed that psychology is taught as a one-semester course in 64.8 per cent of the high schools, as a two-semester course in 34.5 per cent, and as a four-semester course in 0.7 per cent. However, teachers were asked, "In your opinion, how many semesters should be devoted to a high-school course in psychology?" Of 93 teachers offering psychology as a one-semester course, 38.7 per cent thought it should be a one-semester course, 60.2 per cent thought it should be a two-semester course, and 1.1 per cent thought it should be a three-semester course. Of 50 teachers offering psychology as a two-semester course, 84.0 per cent thought it should be a two-semester course, 14.0 per cent thought it should be a four-semester course, and only 2.0 per cent thought it should be a one-semester course. The one teacher who offered psychology as a four-semester course thought it should remain a four-semester course. In summary, and for all teachers regardless of the length of the course taught, 68.3 per cent expressed the opinion that psychology should be a two-semester course, 24.8 per cent thought it should be a one-semester course, 6.2 per cent a four-semester course, and 0.7 per cent a three-semester course.

GENERAL OPINIONS OF PUPILS IN PSYCHOLOGY COURSES

Pupils were asked, "In your opinion, how many semesters should be devoted to a high-school course in psychology?" A total of 2,680 replies were received. Of this number, 1,586 were studying psychology in a one-semester course, 1,094 were studying it in a two-semester course. There were 1,151 boys and 1,529 girls. That both boys and

girls share their teachers' enthusiasm for a course in psychology is indicated in Table I shown below. The table does not include two pupils who expressed the opinion that psychology should not be taught in high school. (They had had a recent "run in" with their psychology teacher over a matter of discipline.) It will be noted that, for both teachers and pupils, the more time is devoted to a course in psychology, the more time it is thought should be devoted to this subject.

TABLE I. PER CENTS OF PUPILS EXPRESSING THE OPINION THAT PSYCHOLOGY SHOULD BE TAUGHT FOR FROM ONE TO MORE THAN FOUR SEMESTERS

| <i>Number of Semesters Psychology Should Be Taught</i> | <i>Per Cent of Pupils</i> | | | | |
|--|---|---|-----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | <i>In One- Semester Courses</i> | <i>In Two- Semester Courses</i> | <i>Total Boys</i> | <i>Total Girls</i> | <i>Total Pupils</i> |
| 1 | 18.4 | 5.0 | 15.7 | 10.9 | 12.9 |
| 2 | 65.8 | 44.8 | 54.4 | 59.4 | 57.2 |
| 3 | 3.7 | 7.6 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.3 |
| 4 | 10.7 | 36.9 | 21.2 | 21.5 | 21.4 |
| More than 4 | 1.4 | 5.7 | 3.4 | 3.0 | 3.2 |

PSYCHOLOGY AND MODERN OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Why is it thought that more time should be devoted to a study of psychology at the high-school level? To what extent do teachers and pupils believe that a course in psychology contributes to modern objectives of secondary education? Both teachers and pupils were asked to rate psychology in terms of ten objectives of secondary education. A five-point rating scale was used, as follows:

5. Has made the greatest contribution of any subject I have studied in high school.
4. Has made more contribution than most subjects I have studied in high school although not the greatest.
3. Has contributed about the same as most subjects I have studied in high school.
2. Has made less contribution than most subjects I have studied in high school although not the least.
1. Has made the least contribution of any subject I have studied in high school.

Teachers were told to think of each statement as beginning with, "To what extent does the study of psychology contribute to my pupils'——." Both teachers and pupils were warned to be aware of and try to avoid the "generosity error" and the "halo effect" in their ratings.

For each objective, pupils were read a brief explanation of the meaning of that objective. For example, "Family life" was explained

TABLE II. MEAN TEACHER AND PUPIL RATINGS FOR THE VALUE OF A COURSE IN PSYCHOLOGY IN MEETING OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

| <i>Objective</i> | <i>Mean Ratings</i> | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|--------------|
| | <i>Teachers</i> | <i>Total Pupils</i> | <i>Boys</i> | <i>Girls</i> |
| Co-operation..... | 4.36 | 4.14 | 4.07 | 4.20 |
| Family Life | 4.27 | 4.22 | 4.21 | 4.22 |
| Thinking and Communication | 3.76 | 3.61 | 3.55 | 3.65 |
| Health and Physical Fitness | 3.64 | 3.71 | 3.71 | 3.71 |
| Leisure Time | 3.58 | 3.46 | 3.45 | 3.47 |
| Salable Skills | 3.57 | 3.61 | 3.59 | 3.64 |
| Citizenship..... | 3.42 | 3.10 | 3.06 | 3.12 |
| Science | 3.08 | 3.37 | 3.32 | 3.40 |
| Appreciation of Beauty | 2.75 | 2.48 | 2.54 | 2.44 |
| Consumer Problems | 2.74 | 2.59 | 2.66 | 2.54 |
| For all objectives..... | 3.52 | 3.43 | 3.41 | 3.44 |

as, "To what extent has your study of psychology contributed to your understanding of the significance of the family and conditions contributing to family life?" Teachers were asked not to permit any discussion of objectives before the ratings were handed in. A total of 103 teachers and 2,783 pupils rated psychology for each of the ten objectives. Of the pupils, 1,190 were boys and 1,593 were girls. Mean ratings are given in Table II below. In this table, the objectives are arranged in rank order of mean ratings by teachers, but it will be noted that pupil rank order is closely related. Table II suggests that girls (mean rating 3.44) consider psychology somewhat more valuable than do boys (mean rating 3.41). However, this difference is not statistically significant, the significance ratio for the difference being only 2.22.

TABLE III. MEAN RATINGS FOR THE VALUE OF A COURSE IN PSYCHOLOGY IN MEETING OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AS EXPRESSED BY PUPILS IN ONE- AND TWO-SEMESTER COURSES

| <i>Courses</i> | <i>Mean Ratings</i> | |
|--|---------------------|------|
| <i>Pupils in one-semester courses:</i> | | |
| Boys (N = 689) | 3.37 | |
| Girls (N = 898) | 3.39 | |
| Both Sexes (N = 1587) | | 3.38 |
| <i>Pupils in two-semester courses:</i> | | |
| Boys (N = 501) | 3.47 | |
| Girls (N = 695) | 3.51 | |
| Both Sexes (N = 1196) | | 3.49 |

As has been indicated previously, pupils in two-semester courses are more favorably inclined toward psychology than pupils in one-semester courses. Do pupils in two-semester courses believe that psychology contributes more toward modern objectives of secondary education than do pupils in one-semester courses? As is indicated in Table III, the answer is in the affirmative. The difference between the mean rating of pupils in one-semester courses (3.38) and the mean rating of pupils in two-semester courses (3.49) is statistically significant, the significance ratio being 8.15.

SUMMARY

Where it is offered as a separate subject of instruction, psychology is usually taught in the senior year, or in the junior and senior years combined.

In 65 per cent of the high schools, psychology is taught as a one-semester course, but 75 per cent of the teachers believe that it should be two or more semesters in length, most of them believing that two semesters is the best length for the course. Pupils share in the belief that a course in psychology should be more than one semester in length, 87 per cent of them expressing the opinion that the course should be two or more semesters in length. Responses of both teachers and pupils suggest that the more time is devoted to a high school course in psychology, the more time it is thought should be devoted to such a course.

No teachers of psychology believe that pupils respond unfavorably to the course, and 91.5 per cent of the teachers believe that pupils respond favorably to the course.

Even though warned to be aware of the "generosity error," both teachers and pupils rated have psychology as above the average in meeting modern objectives of secondary education. Teachers and pupils are agreed that psychology contributes most in meeting the co-operation and family-life objectives of secondary education. Also, they are agreed that, as taught at present, it makes its least contribution to the consumer problems and to the appreciation of beauty objectives.

Probably the outstanding finding of the present study is that pupils in two-semester psychology courses rate psychology significantly higher in meeting objectives of secondary education than do pupils in one-semester courses.

There seems to be only one general conclusion possible. Both teachers and pupils have a very favorable attitude toward a high-school course in psychology.

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PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND ATTITUDES OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

A new publication entitled "*The School Counselor, His Work and Training*" (44 pp., 40¢) has recently been published by the California State Department of Education. This publication lists personal qualities and attitudes that are desirable in a counselor. These characteristics in general are the same traits that are found in outstanding teachers. However, teachers who may handle successfully the typical group situations that are characteristic of the classroom, do not necessarily possess the qualities that insure success in handling the person to person relationship which are the basis of the counselor's work. The following characteristics are listed by the publication as especially desirable in persons who are assigned as counselors: (1) Ability to work co-operatively with others; (2) Mature personal adjustment; (3) Ability to maintain objectivity in human relationships; (4) Capacity for inspiring confidence and establishing rapport readily; (5) Acceptance of the principal of individual differences and of the symptomatic nature of behavior; (6) Adaptability; (7) Reliable practical judgment; (8) Sense of humor, enthusiasm, and faith in the improbability of human beings; (9) Interest and curiosity concerning the community, its social and economic organizations, and its problems; (10) High interest in continuous professional improvement; and (11) Willingness to work "beyond the call of duty."

Coal Mining, A New Course

R. P. HIBBS
D. W. HORTIN

LAST fall, for the first time, a course in Coal Mining Science was added to the curriculum of the Du Quoin High School. This was also the first time such a course had ever been offered in a high school in the state of Illinois. Since Du Quoin added this course, two other schools in Southern Illinois have also offered courses in Coal Mining. Du Quoin hopes to see it spread over the entire area in the near future.

It has been the aim of the school board, administration, and faculty for the past several years to build and develop a curriculum which would more successfully meet the needs of the students, the community, and the area. In 1949 a survey was carried out which showed that the parents of over 51 per cent of the student body were connected directly in some way with Coal Mining. This in itself showed that the community must depend economically in a large part upon the coal industry. It was also realized that many of the young men would be looking toward the coal industry for employment after graduation. Little has been done by the schools up until the present time toward preparing them for such employment. Of all job opportunities in this area, none offers a more promising future for qualified and ambitious young men than does the coal industry. It is believed that support for such a statement can be presented with some indisputable evidence.

Of the very few adverse criticisms about the course, one has been that the school is preparing young men for a dying industry. The facts do not support this criticism. More coal is being mined today than has ever been before. New uses are being found almost daily for coal and its by-products. A new atomic energy plant is under construction at this very time which will use tremendous amounts of southern Illinois coal. There is also the possibility that in the not too far future a plant will be constructed in this area for the purpose of the conversion of coal into gasoline. It is vitally important for communities such as

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the Du Quoin area that the coal industry continues to prosper. It is believed that if this community, as well as the coal industry, is to continue to progress, they must both be supplied with new blood. This transfusion depends largely upon those who are going to be graduated from high school in the coming years. Jobs in the coal industry are calling for more men who possess some technical knowledge. Coal mining is no longer the pick and shovel affair which it has been in the past. It is a modern industry using the newest in the way of machinery and equipment. It is an industry which is crying for young men with the technical "know how."

If we are going to keep our most promising graduates in our community, then the school must help to prepare them for places in this community. This cannot be done wholly or even to a great extent by just adding a course in Coal Mining. It is a start in that direction, however; and it is hoped that in a short while its effect may be at least partially felt.

Other courses have also been added which will play an equally large part. Some of these being Community Living, Psychology, Marriage, Family Living, Sales with on-the-job training, Consumer Education. Along with these, the fundamentals of general education are being stressed even more heavily than before. Adding new courses has been planned so as not to lose certain fundamentals which are necessary for a well-rounded education.

Of all courses which have been added, few have met with as much enthusiasm as has the Coal Mining course. Much planning was carried out before the course became a part of the curriculum. The school board, principal, and proposed instructor met with mining and union officials and consulted with the State Bureau of Mines and Minerals and the Bituminous Coal Institute. These groups were all quick to pledge their support to the program.

In setting up the course, the school went to local leaders in the industry for advice on what would be both important and appropriate in the way of course content. It was decided to develop the course upon a series of several definite units. These units include such things as coal formation, geology, history of coal mining, mine safety, mine gases and ventilation, explosives, timbering, haulage, pumping, electricity, chemistry of coal, coal preparation, labor-management relationships, and first aid. The students are given the opportunity to observe and study much of the material first-hand through field trips. During the year the class visits the various kinds of mines in the area, such as shaft mine, slope mine, and strip mine. The class has taken several underground trips in which they have had opportunity to see the different phases and operations of modern mining.

Some of the things seen and studied on field trips have been convey or belt haulage, when the coal is placed on a large belt underground at the face and then carried up to the surface, entirely by belt, sometimes for a distance of several miles. The class has seen all of the different face operations such as undercutting the coal, drilling, blasting with compressed air, and then loading the coal and transferring it to the tippie on the surface. In the tippie, they have seen the coal processed and sorted into its different sizes and grades right up to the point where it is loaded into freight coal cars for shipment to various points all over the country.

Field trips involve studying mining problems other than those just concerning coal production. The class has seen how the mines are ventilated and how a fresh supply of air is fed to all parts of the mine. The class has had opportunities to study the underground pumping system by which the mine is kept free of water. The class had also familiarized itself with mine ventilation by classroom study with the instructor supervising and through individual reports and class discussions concerning various problems related to mine ventilation. After that, and just before a field trip, an expert on mining ventilation is invited to speak to the class and lead it in discussion as a summary to the study of mine ventilation. The pupils are now prepared to visit the mine and observe the things they have been studying. The boys have been able to go underground and observe these different things right during the time when the mines were working so that it was a real situation and not an artificially produced one.

Safety has always been stressed in the course, since it is one of the most important phases of mining. Along with this, a unit is given on first aid. The United States Bureau of Mines sends one of its representatives to give this instruction one day a week for a period of ten or twelve weeks. At the end of the unit, the boys are examined and receive diplomas and first aid certificates through the United States Bureau of Mines. This was the same first aid course which is given to the miners themselves. These are a few of the activities through which the school attempts to teach a mining course. It believes that this course can be of greater interest and value to the boys if it is presented to them in such ways.

It was arranged with the local union and with the officials of New Kathleen Mine of Du Quoin to employ the proposed instructor in the mines during the summer. There he was given many practical experiences in actual mining situations. He was given the opportunity to work at many different jobs during the summer. This was of indispensable value in supplying him with vital information to go along with

what he already had in the way of an educational background in science. This part of the project would have been impossible without the complete co-operation of both mining officials and the local union. Here in itself was a lesson in happy labor-management relations.

This year the course is being offered to twenty-eight boys, who are either of junior or senior standing. At the present time, it is set up as a one-year course offering a full unit of credit in physical science toward graduation. It has been fully accredited by the state; and, if it proves successful and if the need appears, it may be offered as a two-year course some time in the future. The ultimate aim is not to turn out classes of coal mining engineers. That is the job of the University. The aim is to familiarize young men with the different job opportunities in the industry and make them more promising candidates for openings in mining positions and jobs. The knowledge which is passed on to them can also be a foundation upon which they can build with on-the-job learning. It is hoped that out of each group there will be some who will be qualified and will continue study in this field at the universities. Many of these young men will later return to their home community and help to make it a better one in which to live. This course is especially aimed, however, at that group of approximately 80 per cent who will terminate their formal education with a high-school diploma. The school realizes fully its great responsibility in giving this group every thing it can in the way of an education which will help and stimulate them to keep on learning and progressing after they have left school. The school is the last agent that can do this for them.

ENRICHING EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

1. Place emphasis on adjustment in all personal and social relations.
2. Use to advantage individual differences in interest and capacity in all phases of the work.
3. Use the enthusiasm and energy of youth to initiate plans for social actions in the community when such plans have been carefully considered.
4. Encourage a democratic atmosphere in the school which will be maintained and increased by the democratic behavior of all.
5. Use the history of the local community (writing it if necessary) when a knowledge of the growth of the community contributes meaning to citizenship education.
6. Help all pupils to understand the social, political, and economic relations between people and groups in their communities and the larger society in which they live.

Vitalizing Secondary Education, (pp. 77-78). Federal Security Agency, Office of Education.

Practices Which Facilitate Good Library Service

RAYMOND J. YOUNG

THE school administrator is in the position to promote conditions and practices which are conducive to the facilitation of good library service in the school. A recent study by the author indicates that the effectiveness of the secondary school library and the extent to which it effectively contributes to the attainment of a school's objectives varies directly with the administrative practices concerning the library.¹

Increased teacher-pupil planning, use of multiple textbook methods, and the modern philosophy of education demand that the library be the "hub" of school learning activity. The day has passed when distribution of books by someone with little training from isolated, inadequate classroom libraries or rooms with books housed behind locked doors would suffice. The services and influence of the school library should extend into the most remote classroom like spokes of a wheel, to provide resource materials based on individual pupil interests, needs, and abilities. The school administrator with a clear conception of the importance, place, function, and service of an effective secondary school library in the educational program has the best opportunity to facilitate good library service, and the extent to which it functions depends to a large extent upon his provisions for such a "hub."

WHAT IS THE PRINCIPAL'S CONCEPTION?

School administrators often consider the secondary school library as an essential but not an integral part of the secondary school and therefore fail to comprehend the library in its fullest sense or to pro-

¹"An Evaluation of Administrative Practices Concerning Secondary School Libraries," (Unpublished Master's Thesis) Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas, 1949.

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vide for its optimal development. Administrative practices generally contribute favorably to the attainment of objectives which administrators state for the library in their schools, but those objectives do not always appear to contribute enough toward attainment of either the secondary-school objectives or the objectives of the library in modern education.

Leisure time, vocational, and curricular reading guidance should be provided; aesthetic appreciations should be developed; and a wide range of interests should be encouraged and inspired in the modern school library. Probably no one can encourage recreational and informational reading more than an enthusiastic, skilled librarian. Skill in using library facilities and permanent library habits should be developed and encouraged if it is to contribute fully and materially to effective living as a responsible democratic citizen who will intelligently base sound future judgments upon fact in a world of increased propaganda and biased press and radio. Socializing and democratizing experiences that flow into a community should be provided in the modern secondary-school library. Not only should the objectives of the school library contribute favorably to objectives of the entire school educational program, but they should contribute to objectives in providing an over-all library program for the community as a whole.

Administrators, like other teachers and school patrons, have attended schools using single texts and having inefficient library service, and it is often difficult for them to conceive of the library in its fullest sense. Because educators have neglected to provide the best educational opportunities in the past for today's citizen is no justification for assuming they should continue to be neglectful for the citizen of tomorrow. What, then, is the principal's conception of the library in the high school? Too little prior emphasis has been placed upon the library, and it has frequently become the weakest link in the school system as administrators have failed to capitalize upon its fullest possibilities. Following are desirable administrative practices which may be used to evaluate and improve upon existing administrative practices in providing for a modern library in your school.

ADMINISTRATION OF LIBRARY PERSONNEL

The size of the library staff should be determined by the actual needs of the school. Numerical standards of the past pertaining to the size of a library staff have had the inherent limitation of making the size of the staff too largely dependent upon enrollment alone. It is impossible to designate categorically a stationary numerical standard which will be applicable for all schools with similar enrollments,

for other factors such as library attendance, circulation, book selection activities, philosophy of the school program, use of books and library facilities in school assignments, the program of library instruction, and method of housing the library will affect the desired number of library personnel needed. An adequate number of personnel must be employed to organize and carry out the technical routine processes conducive to efficient service according to the demand for it in a particular school. The number and kind of personnel employed seems to have a direct relationship to the kind and quality of school library service in the secondary school.

An in-service training program for the librarian is necessary. A recognized function of school administration is to provide for organization, facilities, and leadership conducive to good teaching and continual teacher growth in service. Provision for directed self-growth and improvement should be made by the administrator to keep the librarian professionally alert and growing in ability. To this end, the library staff should be asked to attend all teachers' meetings, to participate in seeking solutions to common group problems by service on committees, to attend local and regional professional meetings of library associations, and to utilize means for self-improvement.

The secondary-school librarian should be well trained and properly selected. Administrators have often seemed to proceed on the theory that previous training and in-service growth are not essential for a librarian. Almost anyone with little training can care for and circulate books, but the trained librarian in the modern library has a much larger task and must be properly prepared for it. Much of the success and maintenance of efficient school library service seems to depend upon the extent to which the librarian is prepared. The school librarian should be a college or university graduate with at least twenty-four semester hours of library science, and it is highly commendable that professional educational courses and some prior teaching experience be included in the preparation.

Principles of good school administration dictate that no school employees be appointed by the board of education without the superintendent's recommendation, and the librarian is no exception. Because of the administrator's professional preparation, educational experience, and position of educational leadership, he is better qualified than anyone else to select the librarian. Local public opinion and pressure should not be allowed to exert undue influence which would cause a board of education to contract with an elderly retired teacher or a teaching misfit whose training and/or personality did not properly qualify him to discharge the important responsibilities of a librarian.

The administrator must accord the same status to librarians as to other personnel of similar training and experience. A survey of librarians' salaries of the past reveals they have not been sufficient to inspire youth to train for the profession. In the modern school, the librarian should have the same professional and pay status as other teachers in the system according to training and experience. Although adequately trained personnel are not readily available presently, perhaps as the need for and the value of secondary-school library service is increasingly recognized by administrators, the supply will approximate the demand.

The librarian should participate in helping plan course revisions or new courses of study. A secondary school which meets the constant demands of evolving society has a continuous program of curriculum revision and improvement. The trained librarian is in a position to aid and contribute materially to the greater success of such a program. If the library is to function as an integral part of every department within the school and to act as the central resource agency or "hub" of the school, the librarian should be appointed a member of the curriculum committee. Such service will enable him to discharge the prime task of integrating the library with other school activities and of promoting a well-rounded library development program for the improvement of the school.

The administrator should receive periodic reports regarding library activities and services. Many of the provisions made for the library will depend upon the extent to which the administrator recognizes the importance of the library as an instrument of education and develops an awareness of its needs. Much will depend upon his basic understanding of conditions affecting library service and his interpretation of it to the board of education, for, unless the board believes school library service is an essential part of the modern educational program, community support will be negligible. Without accurate knowledge of the problems surrounding the library, administrators cannot adequately interpret it to the public and board of education or defend its expenditures. Information gleaned from annual statistical reports from the librarian necessary to supply records required by the State Commissioner or Superintendent of Public Instruction will not suffice. Frequent reports from the library staff concerning quality and types of service rendered and instances of effective co-operation and activities direct attention toward standards of a good library and toward weaknesses and strengths. Descriptive reports, rather than statistical reports, are likely to convince administrators that a library program is vital to a modern program of education.

Administrators should not permit pupils to be sent to the library as punishment. The library should represent a place where pupils will enjoy going for relaxation. Unfavorable impressions must be avoided. Teachers must not be permitted to send students to the library for detention or punishment. Such a policy will help promote a feeling that the librarian is a friendly, helpful person rather than a disciplinarian representing an unpleasant situation.

Instruction in library use should be given to all students, and instructors should be encouraged to make wide use of the library in their teaching. Much lack of pupil use of the library seems to be due to insufficient information necessary to use the library tools and failure of teachers to utilize library materials in their teaching as extensively as might be profitable. Pupils will not acquire information concerning proper use of library tools by accident, and they often hesitate to use it for lack of sufficient knowledge of them. Learning in modern educational programs depends on constant and skillful use of library resources, and that alone is a cogent reason for teaching pupils what the important library tools are and how to use them effectively. As the multiple-book method of teaching has evolved to replace the limited textbook method, the mass method of instruction has been largely supplanted by much individualized instruction, and the unit method of teaching has replaced short daily assignments, the library has become the power house for the distribution of knowledge under the direction and guidance of a trained expert who understands educational philosophy and pupil development and growth. Teachers should be encouraged to utilize the library to the utmost in their teaching.

School officials should adopt a democratic type of school library administration consistent with the American philosophy of life. The fundamental basic aim of the school in this society is to prepare its members for effective democratic living, and it should exemplify that way of life. Democratic administration implies that the administrator will confer with his co-workers, the teachers, in making and executing policies. It provides all employees with an opportunity to develop themselves and to think for themselves. Efficient democratic administration will provide for experimentation, free expression of opinion, and variations from any practice within the framework of that which is justified in attaining the ends. It will stimulate initiative, self-reliance, and individual responsibility on the part of school personnel. Implicit in the democratic administration of the school is also the substitution of intelligent leadership for authority. Application of the concept makes it imperative that the administrator should consult the librarian and secure his co-operation in matters of admin-

istration that concern the library, but the librarian should be free to organize and manage the library in the most efficient manner.

FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Library budget preparation must be a co-operative undertaking. Sufficient funds to provide adequate library materials should be appropriated by schools. The need for adequate financial basis for library service is apparent, and a definite library budget should be assured. Co-operative participation of the librarian, supervisor of libraries (if there is one), the principal, and the superintendent in preparing the budget for library materials will make it possible for library needs to be more adequately considered in the final budget presented to the board of education. School administrators in many schools have often failed to adhere to this principle. Consequently, serious shortages in funds to meet the real demands of the library result. Arbitrary apportionment is too often barely sufficient to meet minimal standards of accrediting agencies or state departments of education.

Sufficient appropriation for the library should be made. Special supplies, printed materials, replacements, binding and repairing, and supplementary textbook expenses may properly be included in the library appropriation. If special provision is made, audio-visual aids may be included. The librarian's salary, library equipment, and other general maintenance expenditures should be included in the general budget. A minimal appropriation for schools with over five hundred pupils would need to be at least \$1.25 to \$1.50 per pupil; and for smaller schools, \$1.50 to \$2.00 per pupil. Librarians should be encouraged by administrators to expend the entire appropriation.

A special provision should be made in the library budget for encyclopedia replacements at least every five years in addition to the normal library-materials appropriation. Reference set replacements cost considerably more than ordinary books and materials. If they are purchased from the library book appropriation, the librarian may be seriously deprived of the means to purchase other needed materials. These expensive replacements are a necessity for the library fact-finding, information-disseminating functions.

Money appropriated for library materials should never be used for other school needs. If the librarian is to build a balanced book collection and to do long-term planning in supplying school library needs, he must be assured of a stable budget. Regardless of how convenient it may seem, administrators must refrain from using library money for other purposes, although such action may be authorized.

A contingent fund kept at the immediate command of the librarian should be provided. There are many small miscellaneous items such as thumb tacks and transparent tape that a librarian needs occasionally." Recently published pamphlets costing a few cents may be wanted, and such a fund will provide for obtaining them. Some administrators require the librarian to turn all fines and incidental change into the central office for credit, but librarians hesitate to argue for a warrant necessary to purchase a jar of paste. Without a petty cash account at their disposal, they work for long periods of time without necessary expendable items. The provision of a small working fund is desirable.

Money should be collected for lost books but not for overdue books. Lost public property should be replaced by the loser, but the collection of fines for overdue books may well be open to question on the basis that it penalizes the parents instead of the pupil. The advisability of collecting fines may well vary with the local situation.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES PROMOTING ACCESSIBILITY

The library must be open long enough before and after school to permit teacher and pupil use. Library usage by pupils and teachers alike presupposes administrative provisions which make it available when they are free to use it. Adequate time for library use during school hours may not be available for all personnel; therefore, provision should exist for the school library to be open before school opens in the morning, during the noon hour, and after the formal closing of the school day. The time required may vary with the local situation and the demand upon the library.

Administrative provisions should encourage flexibility in library use. When the library is functioning to its maximum capacity in the modern school, entire classes will occasionally be brought to the library during class period for laboratory purposes. Such a practice will necessitate the construction of a centralized working schedule to insure classes accessibility at a given hour. Effective library service provides also that books are loaned to individual classrooms for use there. Blocks of books pertaining to a particular subject should be made available to classrooms where it is inadvisable to have the entire class go to the library, and such a plan necessitates provision for the transportation of materials to and from classrooms. Simple regulations should be established which will permit pupils to go from the study hall or classes to the library with a minimum of checking and confusion.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES CONCERNING ACQUISITION OF MATERIALS

Book selection should involve the co-operation of the school librarian, principal, teachers, and pupils. People are interested in

the activities in which they actively participate. The practice of selecting library books and materials may well be responsible for the extent to which pupils and faculty use them. Book selection by those who anticipate using the library is probably one of the most effective ways of guaranteeing use of the books after they are purchased. The administrator should provide necessary time and facilities to aid the persons involved to set up the necessary machinery for co-operative book selection. Then, knowing the importance of this procedure, he should encourage its use.

Administrative practices should be favorable to making funds available throughout the school year rather than in one or two lump sums. The librarian, like the teacher, cannot predict interests and needs a half a year in advance, and for that reason he cannot buy library books to the best advantage if purchases are required by the administrator to be made only once or twice a year. Some schools have been found to place the bulk of the annual book order in the spring and leave an unexpended balance sufficient to meet special demands during the year. Such action is commendable. Spacing book orders throughout the year will enable the librarian to build a book collection which meets the school demands as they arise during the year and in turn provide more effective service as an integral part of the instructional program of the school.

It is generally undesirable for the administrator to purchase books from a traveling salesman without first consulting the librarian. The school librarian is in the best position to know the most imperative needs of the school library, and the administrator should consult with him before placing an order with a salesman who visits the school. The librarian has full knowledge of materials in the library and of books on the market. If he is not consulted, duplicate or inferior materials may be ordered under sales pressure. An order of any size for unnecessary or undesirable books may cut into the slim budget and effect a disruption of long-range plans and the omission of urgently needed vital materials.

Administrators should not require bids. Little or nothing seems to be gained by schools in obtaining bids on library materials. If materials are not carefully checked, substitutions and other undesirable practices may go unnoticed. Dealers' discounts usually amount to more than savings through bids. The administrator should remember that the lowest bid is not necessarily the most economical one in purchasing books.

Magazine subscriptions extending more than twelve months should be resisted since annual revaluation for school purposes is essential.

Today, magazines play a major role in our secondary schools in furnishing current news and topics of general educational value. If the magazine selection is to serve the appropriate interests and be geared to the abilities of the pupils who will use them, the magazine subscription list must be constantly revised to keep abreast with the changing student body and curriculum. This is not likely to be done when subscriptions are made for several years. The best length for magazine subscriptions appears to be nine to twelve months, depending on whether or not the issues are bound for future reference. In the long run, the small saving the administrator may receive from long-time subscription contracts will not offset the economic and educational waste of providing periodicals that are not used and fail to meet the needs.

Some administrators have found it more satisfactory for secondary schools to purchase magazines from commercial magazine agencies than from publishers. It is more economical, and agencies are better equipped to handle the business concerning placing subscriptions, missing copies, duplicate copies, and alterations for defective copies than school clerks or local agents. Requiring that such materials be ordered from publishing companies involves excessive and detailed clerical work for which the librarian has no time.

Library equipment should be purchased from standard library equipment houses. Library equipment is preferably to be ordered from standard library-equipment houses, but may be secured from local furniture dealers and other schools, or it may be built by local carpenters or the school shop. Specifications for library equipment are standardized to give the most satisfactory library service, and firms specializing in their manufacture assure correct dimensions and excellence of construction. The local carpenter or janitor may not be aware of the most desirable features which render the equipment most effective in the library.

All gift books should be evaluated before being placed in the library. Administrators report the school is sometimes the recipient of the old book collections of interested lay donors. School libraries usually contain enough obsolete, antiquated books on the shelves without adding more. Some old books pertaining to certain subject areas are valuable and can be catalogued for the library, but the donor should be led diplomatically to understand this selective procedure. Certain special-interest groups sometimes circulate ideas by giving books. Books of this nature are often not satisfactory for use in the secondary-school library. The content of some books is unfit for a school library. There should be no hesitancy about banning

questionable books. All books, old or new, presented to the library as gifts should be subject to discriminating evaluation before being put on the shelves.

Orders for library materials should be placed through the central business office. Basic principles of sound school business administration require that orders for materials be placed by the central business office. Most secondary-school librarians have inadequate clerical help or time to place orders and carry on necessary correspondence with the companies selling library materials. Such routine may be most effectively discharged by the central office force.

ORGANIZING AND HOUSING THE LIBRARY

The total library program requires proper and adequate housing. The library may be housed in a room adjoining the study hall or in a separate central library room; it may be combined with the study hall in the same room or separated from it by a railing or glass partition. The library study-hall combination is undesirable for maximum library service, is psychologically unsound, and presents many additional problems to the librarian, but numerous schools must continue to use it because of housing inadequacies. In the modern secondary school where entire classes may desire to make use of the library, sufficient space is essential to accommodate the largest group free at any one time during school hours.

Increased school-community co-operation, the growth of services to the community by the secondary schools, and consequent increased use of the school library by the community make it desirable that the theory advocating central location of the library on the second floor front of a two- or three-story building be re-examined. The library should be near the main arteries of traffic in order to be accessible to the people who use it. Perhaps a selected ground-floor location for the library would be more accessible to both pupils and adults, who have need to use it but hesitate to journey to the second floor of the building. It seems impossible to state a rigid rule for locating the library suite, but it is desirable to plan it as a unit with auxiliary rooms easily accessible, and to locate it away from noisy activities but in proximity to the main arteries of traffic, and to make provision for future expansion. The top floor of a building, an out-of-way wing, space between stair cases, the end of a corridor, or a room equipped with extensive plumbing would, then, not be desirable.

At least one conference room and one workroom should be provided for every secondary-school library. The librarian has the technical work of processing books and materials and of caring for them

properly after they are in use. He needs proper working space. A separate workroom is necessary to facilitate the work of the librarian. If the library is to function as a socializing agency, conferences will be held between librarian and teachers or pupils. Students making laboratory use of the library may desire to confer with one another in groups. To effectively meet pupils needs, then, adequate conference space should also be provided.

Such housing facilities as these can be provided for only by the forward-looking administrator. He will plan to provide at least one conference and one workroom besides the main reading room and to locate the library suite in the most desirable place after due consideration of the several factors involved when a building program makes possible the remedying of library housing inadequacies.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES RELATING TO COMMUNITY LIBRARY RELATIONS

The school should actively co-operate with the public library in rendering service to the youth and adults of the community. If library habits and skills are to be of lasting duration and permanent value, teachers must use the public library in addition to the school library in arranging for class needs. Both should serve community youth and supplement each other in providing library materials. The existence of a public library in the school district does not imply that the school and public libraries duplicate the services of each other, and one should not operate oblivious to the functions of the other. Administrators should encourage teachers to familiarize themselves with the resources of the public library and be prepared to help pupils use them. The school library will become increasingly effective as co-operative arrangements are made between the two libraries. Co-operative planning between libraries can result in more effective material collections and better service for both libraries. Co-operation should take the form of reference and lending service rather than the administration of school libraries by the public library or *vice versa*.

School-community library co-operation must be a school policy promoted and supported by the administrator. Little seems to have been done to effect desirable co-operation in this fashion, but many possibilities exist. Administrators have reported desirable voluntary co-operation between librarians, but few report conscious efforts in actively co-operating with the public library. The writer has observed the desirable effect of active co-operation brought about by a library-conscious administrator who has done much to maintain conditions conducive to co-operative relations and service.

A Minimal Library on Occupational Information for Counselors

An Annotated Bibliography, Arranged to Correspond with the Manual on "Counselor Preparation"

ALBERT COHEN

THIS annotated bibliography attempts to meet an apparent need for a selection of occupational and related information materials which have the character of "musts" for counselors, teachers, and others dealing with this area. Its arrangement to correspond substantially with the appropriate section of a Manual entitled "Counselor Preparation" (reference 1, below) should have obvious advantages, especially to teachers and to students in college-level courses in the subject. The title does not, of course, imply that the bibliography is a necessity for counselors only. Numerous references are highly important to subject matter teachers for enrichment of their courses with appropriate occupational information, and as aids to fulfillment of their guidance role.

To insure ready accessibility of the material to potential users, articles which have appeared in professional journals and are not readily available in reprint form have been excluded; in one section of the bibliography, where such exclusion resulted in rather serious lack of coverage, ("Use With Individuals"), the location of some pertinent periodical literature is given. The annotations have been developed and arranged in such manner as to highlight differential features of items in the same category. This should facilitate rapid selection of references suited to the varying needs of daily practice.

It should be of interest to note that purchase of all the titles in the bibliography, including one-year subscriptions to those which are periodicals, but exclusive of pamphlet series, would involve an expenditure of approximately \$110, according to the most recent gross prices known to the author. Continuation of the periodical subscriptions would cost approximately \$30 a year. Items marked with asterisks (*) are periodicals.

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OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, GENERAL

1. *Counselor Preparation*. National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington, D. C. 1949. 37 pp. 50¢ (10 or more, 40¢ each).
2. *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*. Max F. Baer, and Edward C. Roeber. Science Research Associates, Chicago. 1951. 603 pp. \$5.75.

Both items provide an overview of occupational information as a field of study and of the resources available to professionals and other information seekers. "*Counselor Preparation*" is an official statement of eight major professional organizations defining the areas of counselor preparation. Pages 9-11 cover the area of "Collecting, Evaluating, and Using Occupational, Educational, and Related Information," although no supporting bibliography is given. "*Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*" is the only up-to-date text available at present covering this area. Carroll L. Shartle is revising his text on "Occupational Information" (Prentice-Hall, 1946), but the revision will not be completed for some time.

CLASSIFICATION: OCCUPATIONAL

3. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. Second Edition, Volume I—Definitions of Titles. U. S. Employment Service. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1949. 1518 pp. \$3.50.
4. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. Second Edition, Volume II—Occupational Classification and Industry Index. U. S. Employment Service. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1949. 743 pp. \$2.00.
5. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles: Part IV*. Entry Occupational Classification. War Manpower Commission, order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Revised, 1944. 242 pp. 55 cents.

Volumes I and II of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* comprise the standard system of occupational classification in widest general use in the United States. Definitions are based on actual job analyses. Titles and codes are valuable for job placement classification, for lists of occupations (including occupations related to each other), and as the basis for a system of filing occupational literature (see also reference 43). Although there are some theoretical objections to the criteria of classification used, and some indications that U.S.E.S. is developing a revised system, Volumes I and II are indispensable for their purposes until a revision of comparable scope becomes available. *Part IV* is the tool developed by U.S.E.S. for job classification of persons with limited experience or training, such as youth, or older persons who must change to work for which they are not fully qualified. It is also an unusually valuable tool in vocational counseling, although probably largely overlooked by counselors in this respect. For example, *Part IV* is an exceptionally fruitful resource for determining vocational possibilities of youth and older persons with complicating factors for planning. Its lists of occupations related to school courses taken and to hobbies are of unique value of themselves. *Part IV* is in obvious need of revision, in that the Volume I and II occupations listed as related to entry occupations are based on the 1939 edition of DOT, and the entry classification system itself could bear considerable refinement.

CLASSIFICATION: OCCUPATIONAL—BY SCHOOL COURSES

6. *Group Methods of Studying Occupations*. Mildred Lincoln Billings. International Textbook Co., Scranton, Pa. 1941. 513 pp. \$3.00.
7. *The "Which?" Book*. A Guide Indicating the Vocational Relationship of School Subjects. By Samuel J. Tilden High School. Published by B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, Washington, D. C. 1937. 19 pp. 10 cents.
8. *School Courses and Related Careers*. Otto R. Bacher, and George J. Berkowitz. Science Research Associates, Chicago. 1941. 97 pp. \$1.00.
9. *School Subjects and Jobs*. Lester J. Schloerb. Life Adjustment Booklets. Science Research Associates, Chicago. 1950. 49 pp. Single copies, 48 cents; 3 for \$1.00; quantity prices on request.

Also see reference #5, Dictionary of Occupational Titles: Part IV.

Group Methods of Studying Occupations contains many valuable suggestions to subject teachers from elementary grades through high school for introducing the occupational relationships of school courses. Chapter VII focuses on the occupational relationships of particular school subjects. *The "Which?" Book* is a handy tool for teachers and counselors, as it gives principal school subjects and numerous familiar occupations related to each, as well as brief definitions of the occupations. Part II, Sections One and Two, of *School Courses and Related Careers* has coverage similar to *The "Which?" Book*, but is not quite as handy to use for this purpose. There is also a third section of Part II, in which occupations are arranged alphabetically, and the school subjects related to each are indicated. *School Subjects and Jobs*, a very recent publication, features charts showing the school subjects necessary or helpful in preparation for 266 widely known occupations, with the occupations grouped in relation to interest areas rather than school subjects. The interest areas used are those of the "Kuder Preference Record-Vocational." An index provides similar information to the third section of the preceding reference.

CLASSIFICATION: OCCUPATIONAL—BY APTITUDES AND INTERESTS

10. *Predicting Success in Professional Schools*. Dewey B. Stuit, and others. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1949. 187 pp. \$3.00.
11. *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing*. Walter V. Bingham. Harper and Brothers, New York. 1937. 390 pp. \$3.00.
12. *The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales (Manual)*. Donald G. Paterson, Clayton d'A. Gerken, and Milton E. Hahn. Science Research Associates, Washington, D. C. 1941. 133 pp. \$3.75.
13. *Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests*. Donald E. Super. Harper and Brothers, New York. 1949. 727 pp. Trade Edition, \$6.00; Student Edition, \$5.00.

Predicting Success in Professional Schools assembles research evidence on aptitude and earlier school performance requirements which have been found predictive of success in professional training for eight occupations. Also indicates tests which have been found valid for these purposes. This type of data is much needed in vocational and educational counseling. *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing* is an established reference describing aptitude requirements

of the principal occupations and occupational groups, and some of the widely-used aptitude tests at the time of writing. It has been referred to as "the bible of vocational guidance." Research evidence for the conclusions of the author are generally not given, and the book is in need of revision, but it has not been superseded as yet for its particular coverage. In the back of the book an early edition of the *Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales* is presented. These give patterns of aptitude requirements for 422 occupations employing a large proportion of American workers, according to the pooled judgments of a number of vocational psychologists. *The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales* (reference 12) is a later edition of the same scales, and somewhat more satisfactory for counseling use. Pooled judgments continue to be the basis of the revision, but the scales have considerable value if used suggestively, and are constantly utilized by counselors who are familiar with them. *Appraising Vocational Fitness* attempts to define the principal aptitudes. It describes and evaluates critically the widely used tests for each. It is distinguished by its reliance upon research evidence. Use of the index permits location of some recent findings regarding the aptitudes and interests related to specific occupations, although the primary focus of the book is upon aptitudes and aptitude tests as such, rather than the aptitude requirements of particular occupations (as differentiated from references 10, 11, and 12).

CLASSIFICATION: OCCUPATIONAL—JOBS SUITED TO HANDICAPPED

14. *Medical Information for Vocational Rehabilitation Officers*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Vocational Rehabilitation Series Bulletin No. 27, 1943. 88 pp. 20 cents.
15. *Selective Placement for the Handicapped*. U. S. Employment Service. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Revised, 1945. 136 pp. 30 cents.

See also reference 35, *Occupational Guide Series*.

Medical Information for Vocational Rehabilitation Officers is possibly the best single manual for counselors working toward employment of persons having disabilities of tuberculosis, cardiac diseases, vision, and hearing. *Selective Placement for the Handicapped* is a more general manual on placement of the handicapped, although it has comparable material on the specific handicaps mentioned above, as well as other types of handicaps. It describes clearly the important "selective placement process" of U.S.E.S., and gives much valuable general information on counseling and employment, and placement of handicapped persons. Among occupational pamphlet series, the *Occupational Guide Series* of the U.S.E.S. has exceptionally good coverage of the physical demands and working conditions of occupations treated.

CLASSIFICATION: INDUSTRIAL

16. *Standard Industrial Classification Manual: Volume I, Part I: Manufacturing Industries*. Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1945. 81 pp. \$1.00.
17. *Standard Industrial Classification Manual: Volume II, Nonmanufacturing Industries*. Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Revised May, 1949. 175 pp. \$1.25.

Together, these comprise a standard system of industrial classification, containing standard titles, definitions, a coding system, and helpful indexes. This also appears to be the most workable system for adaptation to the filing of industrial literature.

DESCRIPTION OF JOBS AND INDUSTRIES (Technical Methods)

18. *Training and Reference Manual for Job Analysis*. War Manpower Commission, Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1944. 104 pp. 30 cents.

Gives the fruits of ten years of experience of the Federal government in the development of job analysis methods and forms. "At the time of its publication, it may be considered the last word in job analysis as far as the Division is concerned."

OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS IN RELATION TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHANGES

19. *Occupational Outlook Handbook*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in co-operation with the Veterans Administration. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin No. 998, 1951 (Revised). 574 pp. \$3.00.
- *20. *Monthly Labor Review*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. \$4.50 a year.
- *21. *Labor Information Bulletin*. U. S. Department of Labor. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Monthly. \$1.00 a year.
- *22. *The Labor Market and Employment Security*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security and Affiliated State Employment Security Agencies. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Monthly. \$3.00 a year.
- *23. *Facts on Women Workers*. U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau, Washington, D. C. Monthly. Free.
- *24. *Occupational Trends*. Bellman Publishing Company, Boston, Mass. Bi-monthly, September through June. \$2.00 a year; Students, \$1.00 a year.
- *25. *The Career News*. B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, Washington, D. C. Bi-monthly. \$1.00 a year; \$1.75 for two years; \$2.25 for three years.

The long awaited revision of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* is an outstanding tool for rapid location of trend and outlook, as well as other significant information on 433 occupations in which a large proportion of American workers are engaged. Major characteristics and trends of principal occupational groups and several industries are also described. Although trend and outlook information is emphasized, the reports on each individual occupation also give data on the nature of the work, preparation required, earnings, places of employment, and sources of further information. The reports are brief, yet succinct, adding to the Handbook's utility. Pages 13-32 give an excellent overview of broad economic, occupational, and industrial trends in the United States. Purchasers should write to the Bureau of Labor Statistics requesting copies of several supplements to the *Handbook* which have already been published, also asking to be placed on the mailing list to receive

further supplements. Supplement No. 12, for example, deals with "The Defense Program and the Employment Outlook." *Monthly Labor Review* often is the first published source of occupational, industrial, and related studies of the U. S. Department of Labor. *Labor Information Bulletin* gives brief reports, in popularly written style, on findings of the Department regarding outlook and other occupational and industrial information. *The Labor Market and Employment Security* digests labor market information obtained by local state employment services and has special value for regional and local purposes. Each issue contains one or several occupational and industrial studies of national significance. *Facts on Women Workers* briefly reports significant trends in employment of women, and lists new publications of the Women's Bureau along these lines. *Occupational Trends* and *The Career News* are popularly written periodicals, suitable for students of high-school level and above, containing occupational, industrial, and educational information, including trends and outlook. Both use United States Government sources extensively. *The Career News* contains material of special interest to Jews, but most of its material is of general interest.

Note: The section below, "MISCELLANEOUS SOURCES OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, ESPECIALLY INDEXES AND PAMPHLET SERIES," contains a number of references which emphasize trend and outlook information, although covering other aspects of occupational information (See especially references 30 through 34). This is also true of reference 47, *Occupational Guide Series, Detroit Area*, under the section, INFORMATION FOR LOCAL USE, also below.

JOB FAMILIES

See reference 4, "Dictionary of Occupational Titles," Volume II; and reference 5, "Dictionary of Occupational Titles," Part IV.

Volume II of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* arranges related occupations in groups. Part IV of the *Dictionary* is probably of even greater value from the standpoint of indicating job families, since its arrangement of occupations is based on more refined and comprehensive criteria of interrelationship, and it indicates the relationship between entry and non-entry occupations.

MISCELLANEOUS SOURCES OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, ESPECIALLY INDEXES AND PAMPHLET SERIES

Indexes

- *26. *Occupational Index*. Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, New Jersey. Quarterly. \$7.50 per year. Cumulative Annual Index included in subscription.
- *27. *Guidance Index*. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois. Monthly, September through May. \$4.00 a year.
- 28. *Occupational Pamphlets: An Annotated Bibliography*. Gertrude Forrester. H. W. Wilson Co., New York. Revised, 1948. 354 pp. \$2.50.

The *Occupational Index* briefly describes and evaluates published occupational and industrial information, starring items recommended as especially valuable. The *Guidance Index* describes selected publications on guidance and related fields, including items related to testing, techniques of counseling,

etc. Its coverage of publications on specific occupations and industries is much less comprehensive than that of the *Occupational Index*. *Occupational Pamphlets* describes and evaluates 2,000 pamphlets arranged by occupation and industry, available at the time the book was written. Items recommended for first purchase in small libraries are marked with double stars; other recommended items, by single stars. This publication, together with subsequent issues of the *Occupational Index*, is of suggestive value in the selection of occupational and industrial pamphlets when establishing a library of this kind.

Periodicals

- *29. *Occupations*—The Vocational Guidance Journal. National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington, D. C. Monthly, October through May. \$4.50 a year.

See also references 20, 21, 22, 24, and 25.

Occupations—The Vocational Guidance Journal is the official publication of N.V.G.A., and is indispensable for keeping abreast of professional developments in the field of occupational and related information, especially technical aspects. Book reviews and other sections are an important means of noting significant new occupational information publications. The *Monthly Labor Review* (reference 20), *Labor Information Bulletin* (reference 21), *The Labor Market and Employment Security* (reference 22), *Occupational Trends* (reference 24), and *The Career News* (reference 25) contain specific occupational and related studies covering aspects other than, and in addition to, trend and outlook information.

Selected Pamphlet Series (National)

30. *Occupational Outlook Summaries*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Free to schools and counselors as long as supplies last.
31. *Wall Chart Series*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Free to schools and counselors as long as supply lasts.
32. *Occupational Outlook Bulletins*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. From 10 cents to 50 cents each.
33. *The Outlook for Women in Occupations in the Medical and Other Health Services*. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 203 Series. 5 cents to 15 cents each.
34. *The Outlook for Women in Science*. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 223 series. 10 cents to 25 cents each.
35. *Occupational Guide Series*. United States Employment Service. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Published intermittently 1947-48. Explanatory booklet, any one *Job Description* section, or any one *Labor Market Information* section, 5 cents each.
36. *Careers Series* of B'nai B'rith. B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, Washington, D. C. 20 cents each.

37. *Occupational Abstracts*. Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, N. J. 6 pp. each (folder series). 50 cents each. Any ten or more, 35 cents each. Special prices on larger quantities. 25 cents for students.
38. *Vocational Guidance Manuals*. 45 W. 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y. \$1 each. Special discounts for quantities.
39. *Careers Research Monographs*. The Institute for Research, 537 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago 5, Ill. Each group of five titles, \$3.75 (except Group A which is \$5.25); 5 or more groups in one order, 10 per cent discount; 10 or more, 20 per cent discount; 26 or more, 30 per cent discount.
40. *Vocational and Professional Monographs*. Bellman Publishing Company, Boston, Mass. 50 cents to \$1.00 each; \$29.70 for series of 50.
41. *American Industries*. Bellman Publishing Company, Boston, Mass. Most titles \$1.00; a few are \$1.50 and \$2.00.

References 30 through 41 are pamphlet series in widest general use (*Occupational Outlook Summaries* and the *Wall Chart Series* summarize and/or refer to longer studies). References 30 through 34 emphasize trend and outlook information, but cover other aspects of the occupations and industries treated. The two series on *The Outlook for Women* contain information of interest to males as well as females. The *Occupational Guide Series* of the United States Employment Service tends to be rather unique in the quality of its coverage of physical demands and working conditions of occupations. The *Careers Series of B'nai B'rith* contains material of special interest to Jews, but is of general interest as well. Other pamphlet series and items are noted in references 26 through 29, particularly.

Note: See also the section below, INFORMATION FOR LOCAL USE, regarding pamphlet series emphasizing local information.

Civil Service announcements of positions available are important sources of occupational information, and counselors should be on mailing lists for their receipt.

EVALUATION OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION LITERATURE

42. *Standards for Use in Preparing and Evaluating Occupational Literature*. Publications Committee, Occupational Research Division, National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington, D. C. Occupations, Volume XXVIII, Number 5, February, 1950. Pages 319-324. Reprints available at 10 cents a copy from N.V.G.A.

See also reference 28, *Occupational Pamphlets*.

Standards for Use in Preparing and Evaluating Occupational Literature is a new official statement of N.V.G.A., combining the features of two important previous official publications on this subject, "Distinguishing Marks of a Good Occupational Monograph" (November, 1939), and "Content of a Good Occupational Monograph—The Basic Outline" (October, 1940). It aims at raising the quality of published occupational literature, and gives guides for determining the quality of available literature. Part I of *Occupational Pamphlets*, pages 11-15, is a helpful supplement to the preceding reference. It describes certain criteria used by its author for the evaluation of occupational pamphlets, particularly.

MAINTAINING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION
MATERIALS FOR REFERENCE USE

See reference 2, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*.

43. *A Plan for Filing Unbound Occupational Information*. Based on the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Second Edition, 1949. Bureau of Guidance, University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Albany 1, New York. 1950 (Revised). 19 pp. Free.

Also see references 16 and 17, *Standard Industrial Classification Manual*.

Pages 364-417 of *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use* gives a comprehensive introduction to various systems for filing occupational, educational, and related information, including details of systems proposed by the authors. *A Plan for Filing Unbound Occupational Information Based on the Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, second edition, 1949 gives full details of a filing system based on the revised DOT, including suggestions as to materials to use and greatly facilitates establishment of this exceptionally important system. Volume I, Part I, and Volume II of the *Standard Industrial Classification Manual* should be given serious consideration for the filing of Industrial information. The system can be adapted according to the finess of breakdown required.

INFORMATION FOR LOCAL USE

Federal Reserve Banks of the various districts, and state employment services tend to be unusually good sources of carefully compiled and authentic publications giving local information on labor market conditions, occupations, and industries. State, county, and city civil service commission announcements of position openings should also be received by counselors as sources of certain important local information on requirements of occupations. *The following references, pertaining to the author's locality, can be replaced by similar publications which may be available elsewhere:*

- *44. *Business Conditions*. Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago, P. O. Box 834, Chicago 90, Ill. Issued monthly. Free.
- *45. *Michigan's Labor Market*. Michigan Unemployment Compensation Commission, 7310 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, Mich. Issued monthly. Free.
- *46. *Labor Market Letter—Detroit Area*. Michigan Unemployment Compensation Commission, 7310 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, Mich. Issued monthly. Free.
- *47. *Occupational Guide Series, Detroit Area*. Michigan Unemployment Compensation Commission, 7310 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, Mich. Published intermittently since 1947. 25 cents, single copies; 10 cents per copy in order of five or more. A limited distribution is made without charge to educational institutions, libraries, and vocational guidance organizations.

See also reference 2, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use* and reference 22, *The Labor Market and Employment Security*.

Business Conditions discusses major developments and trends in business and employment in general and in major industries in the seventh Federal Reserve district. *Michigan's Labor Market* and *Labor Market Letter—Detroit Area* summarize significant labor market information in their respective areas. They include breakdowns of employment, wages, and hours, by industry, and

periodic changes therein. The *Occupational Guide Series, Detroit Area* is a sizeable series of pamphlets, similar in coverage to the *Occupational Guide Series* of the United States Employment Service (reference 35), containing carefully compiled information regarding the Detroit area. *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*, chapters 10 and 11, contains good coverage of the nature, uses, and techniques of conducting follow-up, want-ad, and community surveys for obtaining local occupational information.

TRAINING FACILITIES

48. *A Bibliography of School and College Information*. Ruth E. Anderson. A reprint from the November, 1948 issue of "The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals." Order from author, Staatsburg-on-Hudson, New York. 25 pp. 50 cents.
49. *Lovejoy's Complete Guide to American Colleges and Universities*. Clarence E. Lovejoy. Simon and Schuster, New York. 1948. 158 pp. \$1.50.
50. *Education Directory, Part 3, Higher Education*. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Issued annually. 189 pp. 40 cents.
51. *Accredited Higher Institutions, 1948*. Theresa Birch Wilkins. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 1949. 120 pp. 30 cents.
52. *American Universities and Colleges*. A. J. Brumbaugh, editor. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1948. (5th Ed.) 1070 pp. \$8.00.
53. *Junior College Directory*. American Association of Junior Colleges, 1201 19th St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Annual, 1951. 50 pp. \$1.00.
54. *American Junior Colleges*. Jesse P. Bogue, editor. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1948. 537 pp. \$6.50.
55. *Directory of Secondary Schools in the United States*. United States Office of Education. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1949. 496 pp. \$1.50.
56. *Approved Technical Institutes*. National Council of Technical Schools, Washington 9, D. C. Issued annually. 25 cents.
57. *The Private Aviation School*. Herbert W. Hartley. National Council of Technical Schools, Washington 9, D. C. Issued annually. 15 cents.
58. *Directory of Private Business Schools in the United States*. National Association and Council of Business Schools, Washington 9, D. C. Issued annually. 15 cents.
59. *School-and-Work Programs*. Caroline E. Legg; Carl A. Jensen; and Maris M. Proffitt. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 1947, No. 9, 1947. 56 pp. 20 cents.
60. *The National Apprenticeship Program*. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Apprenticeship, Washington, D. C. 1950. 24 pp. Free.
61. *Home Study Blue Book and Directory of Private Home Study Schools and Courses*. National Home Study Council, Washington 9, D. C. Annual. Pamphlet. Free.
62. *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans*. S. Norman Feingold. Bellman Publishing Co., Boston. 1949. 254 pp. \$6.00.

63. *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans*, Volume II. S. Norman Feingold. Bellman Publishing Co., Boston. 1951. 312 pp. \$5.00.

A *Bibliography of School and College Information* is a clearly annotated bibliography of publications giving such information, comprehensive as of the time of its preparation. *Lovejoy's Guide to American Colleges and Universities* is of special interest for its rating of colleges and universities throughout the United States and its territories, according to their levels of accreditation at the time of its publication. *Education Directory, Part 3, Higher Education* is distinctive for the completeness of its listing of higher educational institutions, including professional schools, by state. Type of accreditation of each institution, and its departments, is given by symbols. *Accredited Higher Institutions, 1948* shows accreditation of higher institutions in each state (except professional) more graphically than in the preceding reference. Professional and higher level technical schools accredited by the appropriate organization are listed separately, by type. This is an exceptionally "handy" reference. *American Universities and Colleges* is probably the most highly regarded reference work of its kind. It gives the more important information about 821 colleges and universities, all of which have some type of accreditation, in narrative form for each. Information about accrediting procedure, and lists of accredited professional and technical schools in 19 fields are also given.

Junior College Directory lists junior colleges in the United States, by state and alphabetically, and gives limited information about each, including accreditation, in tabular form. *American Junior Colleges* is a companion volume to *American Colleges and Universities* (reference 52), with similar features, and is the leading reference work on junior colleges.

The Directory of Secondary Schools in the United States is both a directory and roster of high schools accredited by state and regional agencies. Also gives enrollment, staff, and other data for each school. Accreditation status of high schools is especially important in regard to acceptance of their graduates by institutions of higher education.

Approved Technical Institutes lists private technical schools (secondary-school level) having courses approved by this Council, the courses so approved, and gives other related information. Only a limited number of schools are approved at present. *The Private Aviation School* is a companion publication to the preceding reference, dealing with private aviation schools only. The *Directory of Private Business Schools in the United States* lists, in tabular form, private business schools (office workers) approved by the Council, with certain information about each. A much larger number of schools than in the two preceding references are listed.

School-and-Work Programs reviews the operation of such programs in American high schools during World War II, and makes recommendations. *The National Apprenticeship Program* is a concise introduction to the Federal apprenticeship program. It includes a list of apprenticeable occupations (with their DOT codes), and gives a directory of regional offices of the Bureau. *The Home Study Blue Book and Directory of Private Home Study Schools and Courses* lists the home study schools and courses approved by the National Home Study Council. A large number of schools are listed.

The two volumes on *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans* comprise an extensive annotated directory of sources and resources available.

USE OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION WITH GROUPS AND INDIVIDUALS

Use with Groups

See reference 2, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*.

64. *Group Guidance: Principles, Techniques, and Evaluation*. Robert Hoppock. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 1949. 393 pp. \$3.75.

65. *Methods of Vocational Guidance*. Gertrude Forrester. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston. 1944. 460 pp. \$3.00.

See also reference 6, *Group Methods of Studying Occupations*.

Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use, chapters 14, 15, and 16, gives an excellent introduction to the development of occupational information through group activities, including detailed suggestions for curriculums in occupations at the high-school level. *Group Guidance: Principles, Techniques, and Evaluation* is likely to become a basic text in group guidance, particularly in its application to educational and vocational guidance. It offers many clear and concise suggestions for the use of occupational information with groups. *Methods of Vocational Guidance* and *Group Methods of Studying Occupations* are older books than the foregoing, but still valuable for their description of many techniques for the development of occupational information in group activities. They are particularly helpful in their suggestions for the use of occupational information in teaching school subjects. The former reference emphasizes occupational information in teaching business subjects, but many of the techniques are suggestive for teachers of other subjects. The latter is one of the very few references which includes detailed suggestions for the use of occupational information in the elementary grades.

Use With Individuals

Note: Very few books or pamphlets are available which deal specifically with techniques in the use of occupational information with individuals. Until fairly recently, in fact, references of any kind focussing upon this matter were rare. In the past few years, however, *Occupations—The Vocational Guidance Journal* (reference 29), in particular, has published several valuable papers on the topic. Readers are directed to articles in the issues of October, 1949; April, 1950; and January and March, 1951 by Christensen, Speer, and Jasker; Kirk and Michels; Lindley; and Brayfield. The following are among the few texts known to the writer which develop this material at some length.

See reference 2, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use*.

66. *How to Counsel Students*. E. G. Williamson. McGraw-Hill, New York and London. 1939. 562 pp. \$4.75.

Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use has a valuable chapter (13) on "The Use of Occupational Information in Counseling Interviews," incorporating some of the findings of several of the articles mentioned. One of the distinctions of its treatment is the use of a considerable amount of case material for illustrative purposes. *How to Counsel Students*, an old but still valuable reference on techniques of educational and vocational guidance, deals, in various contexts, with the use of occupational information in individual counseling. This material can be located by consulting the book's index, under *Occupational Information* and *Understanding the World of Work*.

ADDENDUM

Reference 63. *A. Scholarships and Fellowships*. Theresa Birch Wilkins. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Bulletin 1951, No. 16. 256 pp. 55 cents.

This publication, just off the press, was likewise received too late to be included under "Training Facilities" above. It reports information about financial aids for undergraduate and graduate study available at and administered by colleges and universities throughout the country. The information will be helpful to a large number of students who may be eligible to receive scholarships or fellowships.

Reference 65, Above: A 1951 Edition was announced too late for examination in connection with this article. See "Methods of Vocational Guidance," by Forrester, Gertrude. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston. 1951 (Revised). 463 pp. \$4.25.

MILITARY OCCUPATIONS: References describing military occupations and training and their relationship to civilian occupations were not included in the body of this article because of expectations that currently available material would be subject to frequent changes and would be replaced by considerable new material in the near future. Information regarding available and forthcoming publications in this area can be secured from the following sources, particularly (all are located in Washington, D. C.):

Air Force, Department of Defense

Navy, Department of Defense

Army, Department of Defense

Items on military occupations can be established as a separate category under the general category of occupational classification in the above article, under the caption, "Classification: Occupational—Military." The following specific items, especially, may be consulted for information in this area, and are numbered to precede the section, "Classification: Industrial":

15. A. *Occupational Handbook of the United States Air Force*. A manual for vocational guidance counselors and Air Force personnel officers. United States Air Force, The Pentagon, Washington 25, D. C. 1951. 191 p. Free.

15. B. *United States Navy Occupational Handbook*. A manual for vocational guidance counselors and Navy classification officers. (Revised.) Bureau of Navy Personnel, Washington 25, D. C. 1951. 147 p. Free.

15. C. *Guide to Vocational and Educational Training in the Armed Services*. Federation Employment Service, 67 W. 47th Street, New York 19, N. Y. 1950. 16 p. 15 cents.

MAILING LISTS: Professionals can keep abreast of forthcoming publications on occupational information and information on training, national level, by being placed on the mailing lists of sources mentioned in pages 195-270 of reference 2, above, "Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use."

The Study Day—An Experiment in Curriculum Change

CHARLES A. HOGAN

EDUCATORS working on programs of curriculum development have come to ask themselves many questions: What are the significant learning experiences? How much time should be devoted by the teaching staff to curriculum improvement? What can be done to obliterate the waste and inefficiency in our secondary-school recitation periods? Much confidence is expressed in high places about what the schools can do about these questions. Although such unswerving belief is gratifying, the large secondary school finds itself greatly hampered in effecting curriculum development. Large high schools find that size alone produces inertia and crystallization that make the initiation of change a herculean task. Too frequently the recommended programs of curriculum development are of great salutary value to schools whose size permits relatively easy reorganization of the programs, but are not feasible in the large high schools. To find a suitable vehicle to promote curriculum change and to answer the questions involved in such change, the Study Day was initiated in Trenton Central High School fifteen years ago.

The program as it now obtains is a novel undertaking by which a large secondary school has endeavored to develop a school curriculum program to meet some of the needs of youth under public school conditions. The idea of the program and its organization were originally borrowed from schools organized on the Dalton Plan. Miss Helen Parkhurst, the originator of the plan, said at the time of the Dalton experiment: "We want teachers with original ways sufficient to answer the needs of each individual. Let us free them from the yoke of method and system and make it possible for them to use their own good judgment." This freeing process is the essential contribution of the Dalton Plan to the Study Day program.

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PLAN IS UNIQUE

The history of the Study Day in Trenton High School is unique, even though antecedents of the idea of the day and its organization go back to schools organized on the Dalton Plan. Before becoming principal of Trenton High School, Dr. Paul R. Spencer initiated the one-day-a-week application of the Dalton Plan in St. Cloud, Minnesota, and in Peekskill, New York. According to Dr. Spencer, the purpose in instituting the Study Day in these two systems was to gain the benefits of the virtues claimed by the Dalton type of organization. These are:

1. The assignment of blocks of large units of work which give the student a better over-all view of his task.
2. A flexible schedule which permits the student to make his own schedule.
3. Increased opportunity for the student to get individual help from teachers.¹

In the development of the Study Day in Trenton High School, the above features were maintained along with some distinguishing additions and modifications. In the following ways the Study Day at Trenton High School has differed from the original concept of the Dalton Plan:

1. Trenton's Study Day is one day a week. In the typical Dalton School at least three days a week are organized in this manner, and the other two are used for scheduled conferences.
2. The Dalton Plan places its emphasis upon a contract for subject-matter learnings. It excludes consideration of social activities and social learnings. The Study Day as it developed in Trenton makes wide provision for pupil experiences in the community and for social learnings.
3. The Trenton Study Day program does not deal primarily with subject matter *per se*. In its relation to the usual subject matter, the philosophy of the day is in line with the projected curriculum advocated by Stratmeyer *et al*² in which the teacher may, in co-operation with learners and in light of a specific objective, select from among many available experiences and materials, add whatever is necessary to meet changing conditions and opportunities, and adapt the program to meet the emerging interests and needs of the students.

PURPOSES OF STUDY DAY

These above features, however, were a matter of slow development during a fifteen-year period. In 1936 when the Study Day was introduced, it was viewed by the principal as a beginning step for curriculum development in a community which had revealed itself as chary of change. Although the need for a change in the high-school program was manifest to the professional educator who was conversant with the nature of the student body and the community conditions, three factors prevented outright change in the curriculum:

¹Spencer, P. R. "Meeting Some High-School Problems with a Study Day." *School Executive*, March, 1933, pp. 16-20.

²Stratmeyer, F. B. *et al. Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

1. The large size of the school building and its construction were not conveniently adaptable to a radically different program.

2. The philosophy of the greater part of the faculty was not conducive to widespread curriculum change.

3. The traditionalism of a sector of public opinion which influenced school policies did not favor a sharp departure from the school program then offered.

The Study Day was launched in 1936 after a brief period of orientation for both faculty and students. The community at large adopted a "wait-and-see" attitude toward the program. Since it involved only one day of the school week, it did not threaten the status or security of those members of the faculty whose philosophy and practice were geared to the subject-matter curriculum. Parents of those students who were seeking college entrance saw in the program an opportunity whereby their children would be able to get individual help on specific weaknesses on Wednesdays. The purposes of the day, however, embrace more than the idea of providing time for the inculcation of subject matter for students who manifest weaknesses in different subject-matter fields. The purposes are:

1. To provide a simple and economical reorganization of school machinery which will permit a heretofore traditional school to function as a truly living community without immediately necessitating a radical change in the curriculum.

2. To give all students an opportunity to learn by the scientific method of investigating and discovering for themselves.

3. To reduce subject antipathies which are usually identified with subject weaknesses by readjusting the time schedule to permit the individual to devote more time to a particular obstacle.

4. To enable college preparatory students to have experience vital for success in college; namely, planning their work schedule and to bring to these students the benefits of the larger objectives of general education.

5. To provide a suitable environment outside of the classroom for co-operative action and work and at the same time provide for individual differences in ability and interests.

6. To stimulate widespread and intensive study of significant problems relating to personal and community living.

7. To make available to the classroom teacher and all others who deal with the learning process the use of new and additional types of instructional material and services.

8. To integrate all of the school experiences of the individual in such a manner as to promote the maximum growth of all.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY DAY

The Study Day may be described as follows:³

1. No scheduled recitations are held on Wednesday. All teachers, however, are in their rooms to give individual and group assistance as asked for by pupils coming into their rooms.

³"Information for the Visiting Committee." *The Red Book*, pp. 90-92. A Mimeographed Book for Use by the Evaluating Committee Visiting the High School, 1948.

2. Assignments are made in large units. The minimum assignment is a weekly one made on Thursdays. Assignments are made in this manner in order to enable the student to have experience in planning and budgeting his work.

3. On Wednesday the pupil first goes to his home room in the morning and there makes out a card showing his work schedule for the day. On the card he lists for each period of the day what he plans to do. Pupils who have passed all subjects in the previous quarter (ten weeks) are entirely free to make their own schedule. Pupils who have received marks of D in any subject are required to have their home-room teacher's signature of approval on the program which they choose.

4. A pupil who has failed any subject is required to carry a green card, and must spend, if possible, two periods with the teacher under whom he failed. A green card schedule is made out for the pupil by the home-room teacher.

5. If a pupil schedules himself to work with a teacher, he must stay there for a full period. He may, however, schedule himself for as many periods as he chooses.

6. After the home-room period, the pupil follows his schedule, and at the end of each period, his card is signed by the teacher under whom he has been working to indicate that he has been present.

7. At the end of the day, the pupil returns to his home room and leaves his card with his home-room teacher.

8. Throughout the school week, pupils, teachers, and any school organization desiring to schedule special activities on Study Day present their requested programs to the vice-principal in charge of the administration of Study Day. On Tuesday mornings a Study Day bulletin listing all special activities which are to occur on the following day is submitted to the students through the home rooms. This bulletin is read and discussed with the students who then decide what special activities they wish to participate in on Study Day.

9. If a pupil discovers that a class which he has scheduled is crowded and the teacher in charge feels that he cannot be accommodated, the teacher signs the back of the card with the time that the pupil left his room and affixes his signature. The pupil is then free to schedule himself for another class or special activity. If the pupil has a green card, indicating that he has failed in that particular subject, he is given priority over other students and is provided for in the classroom.

10. All teachers are instructed to sign the pupil's Study Day cards in ink and with a full signature. The use of merely initials and rubber stamps has invited Study Day violations. Rubber stamps of teachers' names have been either duplicated or stolen. This practice enables students to offer specious evidence of attendance which they have cut on Study Day. The use of initials by teachers has led to attempts at forgery on the part of students who have failed to follow the schedule for which they have made a contract. Home-room teachers are instructed to send to the vice-principal in charge of Study Hall all cards about which there is a suspicion of forgery.

ADMINISTRATION OF ATTENDANCE ON STUDY DAY

Although the Study Day permits the pupil great freedom in scheduling his classes and taking trips on Wednesday, the administration of the day maintains a policy of attendance checking to meet the re-

quirements of law and to prevent abuses on the part of some of the student body. The Study Day is organized so that the pupil is required to report to his home-room teacher at the beginning of the school day to make out a contract for the day's program. This contract is in the form of a Study Day card. It is at this time that the attendance is taken by the home-room teacher. At the end of the school day, the pupil returns his card to the home-room teacher with signatures of members of the faculty who have had the pupil under their supervision during the various periods of the day. The absence of a teacher's signature during any part of the contracted program is considered as a violation of the rules of Study Day and is investigated on the assumption that the pupil has cut a part of his school program. The attendance of all pupils is recorded on boards in an Attendance Room. This device keeps each pupil's record individually up to date. It shows each pupil's peculiar attendance behavior, bringing to light at a glance any irregularities that may need attention. Any member of the teaching staff, the guidance staff, or the administrative staff can ascertain at once those students who have a high incidence of absence on Wednesday. Such cases are few.

ATTENDANCE BY DEPARTMENTS ON STUDY DAY

In evaluating the attendance by departments on Study Day, the analysis⁴ was made in relation to attendance for the four other days of the week. During the fourteen-week period that the study was made of the attendance records, it was noted that on the average seven per cent of the school population was absent. From this figure it may be deduced that ninety-three per cent of the school was in daily attendance in classes in various departments of the school. Because of the feature of the Study Day which permits students to schedule more than one period of classroom work and thereby work at sustained periods of time, the attendance percentages of students in many of the departments exceeded that for the regular school day. The percentage of enrollment reporting on Study Day for the various departments was as follows: commercial, 108.5; English, 72.9; industrial arts, 118; foreign languages, 119.5; mathematics, 128; science, 113; social studies, 108. Interpreting these figures by illustration, Dr. Paul R. Spencer, principal of the high school, cites the following example:

If a mathematics teacher has 150 pupils on his class rolls on any given day, those 150 pupils would spend 150 hours studying mathematics with him. On Wednesday, these same 150 pupils are spending on the average, 192 hours in his room, studying mathematics. In the case of the English department, where a large part of the work is the reading of literature, students have

⁴From the files in the office of the vice-principal of Trenton Central High School in charge of Activities.

spent fewer hours in the English classrooms on Wednesday than on any other day of the week. The reason here is more or less obvious; namely, that the students can do the reading of literature at home as well as in the classroom.³

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDY DAY

The first Study Day was interpreted in the strict sense of its name—it was a day for study. The difficult subject-matter courses were well attended. The shops and gymnasiums had less than the figure of usual daily attendance. This distribution of attendance did not change greatly during the first two years of the project. During the school year 1937-38, the scope of Study Day began to grow. The social studies department asked for and received administrative clearance for trips to city governmental agencies to observe the functions of city government. These trips brought to light a weakness in the Study Day as it was then being conducted. The trips necessitated the absence of a large number of students from the school building for half of the school day on Wednesday. This absence resulted in numerous protests from both students and faculty and brought about the first administrative directive in changing the concept held about the Study Day. The protests resulted from the fact that department heads had come to view a large attendance on Study Day as an indicator of success of the instruction of their departments. The trips into the community were lowering the attendance in certain departments. In order to force the students to attend classes rather than take trips, the teachers in various departments were making double assignments on Tuesday so that the students would be inclined to attend their classes to complete the extra work which would be due on Thursday. As a result, the students seeking to take trips to the governmental agencies were forced to do so under the hardship of doing extra work outside of school hours. Administrative policy during this year prohibited the double assignment before the Study Day and through a series of faculty meetings the advisability of long-term assignments of at least a week or more was stressed. This change in policy cleared the way for the planning of trips as a part of the Study Day program and gave the students the worth-while experience of learning to budget their time.

By 1949, the interaction of Study Day with the rest of the school program was accelerated and the influence of one on the other more profound. The number of student trips growing out of the increasing experience aspect of the work in the classroom, increased, and members of civic and fraternal organizations were brought into the school to observe the program offered there and to contribute to the program in areas pertaining to vocational adjustment.

³"Information for the Visiting Committee." *The Red Book*, p. 67. A Mimeographed Book for the Use of the Evaluating Committee Visiting the High School in 1948.

No one can estimate the value of the trips in enriching the education of the students. Three quarters of the students at Trenton High School had not been to either New York or Philadelphia, nor would they be likely later to have some of the experiences which the school made possible through the Study Day program. The record of trips for one year is shown in the table below.

LIST OF TRIPS TAKEN

| <i>Group</i> | <i>To</i> | <i>Periods</i> | <i>Number Participating</i> |
|-------------------|--|----------------|---------------------------------|
| Flying Club | Skyhaven Airport | 4-5-6 | 15 |
| Commerce Club | Panelyte Factory | 4-5-6 | 20 |
| Radio Code | Log Basin | 1-2-3 | 14 |
| 10s Science Class | Heyden Chemical | 2-3-4-5 | 30 |
| Commerce Club | Philadelphia, Curtis Publishing Co. | All day | 15 |
| Marketing-Selling | Ansley Radio | 4-5-6 | 12 |
| 12SI Science | Thiokol Corp. | 4-5-6 | 20 |
| Amanuensis Club | Bell Telephone | 4-5-6 | 18 |
| French Club | New York | All day | 31 |
| Philology Club | New York | All day | 37 |
| Art Club | New York | All day | 11 |
| Art Classes | New York | All day | 35 |
| Stagecraft | New York | All day | 34 |
| Costume Club | Bell Telephone | 4-5-6 | 29 |
| Commerce Club | New York | All day | 37 |
| Naturalists Club | Green's Grove | 4-5-6 | 30 |
| Y-Teens | U.N., New York | All day | 35 |
| Commerce Club | Bayer Aspirin | All day | 15 |
| Copernican Club | Franklin Institute, Philadelphia | All day | 34 |
| Art Class | Van Sciver's | 4-5 | 35 |
| Science Class | Princeton Museum | 4-5-6 | 30 |
| Radio Club | Lawrenceville | 1-2-3 | 14 |
| Advertising Class | New York | All day | 25 |
| Clonian Society | New York | All day | 32 |
| Forum Club | County Workhouse | 4-5-6 | 41 |
| Spanish Club | New York | All day | 32 |
| English Class | New York | All day | 36 |
| Belles Lettres | Fort Dix | All day | 29 |
| Debate Classes | New York | All day | 36 |
| Phi Zeta Club | West Point | All day | 35 |
| Science Group | State Laboratories | All day | 30 |
| Art Club | Princeton | All day | 18 |
| Science Class | State Hospital | All day | 18 |
| Boys' Choir | Princeton | All day | 40 |
| Newspaper Staff | New York | All day | 38 |
| Commerce Club | Hemphill-Noyes | 1-2-3 | 20 |
| English Class | New York | All day | 35 |
| Photography Club | New York | All day | 22 |

THE EVALUATION OF THE STUDY DAY PROGRAM

Like all plans, the Study Day has its weaknesses. Unless it is carefully administered and the classroom and home-room teachers co-operate, many students can take advantage of it and make it a loafing day. There is also the danger of Wednesday becoming too largely devoted to extracurricular work. These difficulties can be overcome by wise administration and teacher co-operation.

Findings revealed in an evaluation of the Study Day after fifteen years of operation and included in a doctoral thesis indicate that curriculum change has resulted. The student body along with the alumni report favorably in percentages over ninety per cent upon the following six aspects of the Study Day program.

1. Ways in which the Study Day has helped the student with his regular classroom work.
2. The extent to which the Study Day has developed hobbies or leisure-time activities.
3. The chief benefits of Study Day as seen by the student.
4. The major disadvantages of Study Day as seen by the student.
5. The relative value of work done on Study Day as compared with work done on other school days.
6. The recommendations for the frequency of Study Day experiences in the future.

A survey of the community revealed that some adult members who were not graduates of the high school were not conversant with the program. Hence there was pointed out the need for a more concerted public relations policy.

A COHERENT RATHER THAN UNIFORM PHILOSOPHY

A study of the philosophy of education in the school revealed a sharp change from traditionalism to one based upon tested learning and experience. This change, like many others, could not be isolated and attributed to the Study Day experiment but was coincident with it.

The Study Day has provided a favorable atmosphere for gradual change in thinking and practice. While a uniformity of thought and practice in education is not an end to be striven toward, some endeavor should be made to reduce the disparity which results from haphazard, meaningless, undirected development. The Study Day possesses the suitable elements of time and environment for developing a coherent rather than uniform philosophy by focusing the thinking of all involved in the education of the high-school youth. If consciously viewed as a vehicle for curriculum development, the Study Day can orient the curriculum to the student, resulting in a more likely approach to the student's self-realization and maximum contribution to society. In the case of the latter, there is an imperative need to relate the cur-

riculum with directness and effectiveness to the problems of the community. The Study Day not only provides the time within the school schedule for a co-operative study of curriculum problems, but also gives provocative material as a springboard for discussion and study.

The Study Day is especially conducive to the involving of pupils in co-operative curriculum development. To a degree, the Study Day as it now functions has given the pupil experience and a sense of freedom in making his own curriculum one day a week. The students of Trenton High School, as a result of their self selection of experiences on Study Day, appreciate very likely more than the typical student body that the individual learns only what he accepts and selects.

The skills of communication so vital for successful participation by students in curriculum planning can be simultaneously developed in the Study Day program. Once the students have found something to express and desire strongly to express it, the teachers of English will find before them an ideal situation for teaching the skills of writing and speech. The experience curriculum as developed by the National Council of Teachers of English has long urged that the English program of writing and speaking be based upon studies of personal and community problems. Just the mere planning for curriculum change can do much to effect desirable change in the English program by presenting a realistic need for communication.

The commencement of curriculum planning on Study Day has several possible points of origin. It might originate from the work of the English department, from social studies, from the guidance department, or from a combination of these or other sources. The Study Day provides many possibilities for beginning the program and for developing it to include teachers and pupils in the planning of the curriculum and the involvement of laity in advisory capacity.

After fifteen years of constant, evolving experience with the Study Day as a vehicle of curriculum change, there has come into being the most serious threat which can attend any change: it, too, may become a crystallization. The administration of the Study Day must be ever alerted to the need of the involvement of the faculty in research and evaluation to the end that will contribute to greater shared responsibility for the nature and direction of the Study Day. Unless such conceptions of the future development of the Study Day are pursued, there looms the danger of the law of diminishing returns. If that occurs, the Study Day would then become a part of a dangerous crystallization. It would be dangerous because it would permit any school which utilizes it to settle down to a fixed, unchanging, inadequate program behind the facade of a speciously experimental device, the Study Day.

The Book Column

Professional Books

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. *Health in Schools*. Revised edition. Washington 6, D. C.: The Association. 1951. 477 pp. \$4.00. The present volume is a contribution to the building of certain necessary safeguards. Although drawing freely upon the content of the original yearbook, the present volume presents new materials and emphases. One of the major theses underlying this revision is that "schools should make a difference"; in brief, that as a result of the school program the behavior of individuals and the processes of community life should be lifted to ever higher levels. If these changes are to take place, however, those concerned with the administration of schools must be sure that the school health program is broad in scope and effective in operation.

In this volume, stress is placed upon mental health as a necessary part of a complete school health program which deals with the whole child. The approach used is to indicate how instructional methods, environmental conditions, and human relationships may make or mar the wholesome emotional life of the individual pupil rather than to emphasize the technical interests of the psychiatrist. More than the 1942 yearbook, the present volume draws attention to the individual child. With large school enrollments and overcrowded classes, both school administrator and classroom teacher must make special effort not to lose sight of the individual pupil. The discovery of health problems, the correction of defects, the building of healthful attitudes, and the prevention of health problems ultimately involve individuals. Whatever group methods are necessary, they must eventually follow through to every pupil.

MEAD, MARGARET. *The School in American Culture*. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1951. 48 pp. \$1.50. This is a challenging statement on what might be called "Coming of age in America's schools." The challenge, as the author sees it, is to produce teachers who will be able to prepare youth for the unknown world in which they will be living. The problem is to work out ways in which both the contributions of the past and the demands of an unknown future may be represented in the present behavior of the teacher. The author discusses the contrasts and conflicts in the role of the American teacher: as the teacher in the little red schoolhouse, interpreting the pioneer world to her pupils; as the teacher in the academy transmitting the European past; and as the new, emerging teacher whose task is to prepare her students for a world which does not yet exist. She suggests that, just as students once learned traditional conformity and traditional skills from teachers who were practiced and certain, so today's children can learn the emotional and intellectual attitudes appropriate to a changing world—but only from teachers who have themselves learned to meet that changing world. This book,

the Inglis Lecture for 1950, is of immediate interest to everyone who cares about America's youth and about the America that they will in time live in and refashion.

MOEHLMAN, A. B. *School Administration*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1951. 524 pp. \$5.00. The central thesis of this book is the simple but frequently neglected principle that instruction is the supreme purpose of the schools and that all activities and services essential to the successful operation and improvement of instruction must be considered as contributory. Organization and administration, growing from instructional needs, are thus considered only as a means and not as an end in the achievement of instructional objectives. Administration is essentially a service activity, an agency through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and efficiently realized. In the development of this point of view the teacher emerges as the most important agent, with the administrator in the position of ministering to his needs and thus increasing the general efficiency of the teaching process. This approach may be described as the functional or organic point of view. Accepting the permanence and the social importance of the education function, advocates of this school of thought proceed to examine, appraise, and orient objectively all structure and organizational practices in terms of instructional purposes.

MUMFORD, LEWIS. *The Conduct of Life*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 352 pp. \$5.00. This book is the culmination of Lewis Mumford's life work. It unites into a working philosophy of life the various strands of philosophy, vision, and doctrine presented in his earlier books. This volume completes the series that began in 1934, with the publication of *Technics and Civilization*. The opening chapters set the immediate issues of modern civilization against the cosmic background of religion. In laying the basis for a new synthesis and a fresh plan of life, the author reinterprets the nature of man, doing justice to both the scientific and religious accounts of his origin and destiny; and he sets forth a philosophy that adds a new dimension, of comprehensiveness and balance, to the partial and inadequate doctrines that too often have been offered in the name of science, of religion, of Marxism, or of humanism.

The author clarifies the main issues of our day by bringing to bear on them a unified method of thinking and an organic system of values, grounded in the nature of life itself. He shows that symbols are no less real than concrete facts; that past causes must be correlated with future purposes; that mechanisms imply ends; and that, while habit and repetition form the groundwork of order, singular moments and singular events offer an opportunity for the human person to change the pattern of life.

MURPHY, H. A. *Teaching Musicianship*. New York 19: Coleman-Ross Co., Inc. 1950. 275 pp. \$4.50. The purpose of this book is to clarify the premises and the procedures for the development of musicianship through an understanding of musical structures. It is based upon a belief that understanding is essential to true musicianship and that it is best developed through an organized study of music itself. The book is divided into two major parts—the student and the teacher. In addition, there is a chapter on "Basic Philosophy" and one on "Conclusions." In the part concerning the student six areas of learning—writing, reading, listening,

playing, analyzing, and creating—are discussed in detail, including their integration and evaluation, followed by a consideration of the requisite training for teachers and the role of the teacher as a musician. The section on "The Teacher" discusses planning, evaluating, and training.

SOLOMON, BEN. *Leadership of Youth*. Putnam Valley, New York: Youth Service, Inc. 1950. 176 pp. \$3.00. This book is a different approach to the whole subject of leadership in general and of youth in particular. This book is not about recreation *skills* in activities but about *leadership*—influencing people—presented in simple words, giving color and vitality to the ideas of the author. The book is divided into two sections. In the *first*, leadership in general is discussed—definitions, misconceptions, the various levels of leadership, and general principles. The second section applies these general principles and gives further suggestions to leaders of youth who are serving, *first*, as program workers; *second*, as supervisors; *third*, as administrators; and *fourth*, as board members. Other chapters in this section include leadership in the out-of-doors, a very comprehensive discussion of leadership of girls, and a chapter on development and training.

STONEMAN, M. A.; BROADY, K. O.; AND BRAINARD, A. D. *Planning and Modernizing the School Plant*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press. 1949. 340 pp. \$3.50. This book is intended to guide and assist school administrators and board of education members in analyzing and solving their school-plant problems. Building problems can never be separated from problems of finance, attendance areas, district organization, curriculum, and community needs. It is believed that educational workers primarily concerned with some of these problems related to the school-plant field can profit from a consideration of the interrelationships indicated herein.

The writers of this book are aware that in some respects the building problems, as the curriculum and other problems, of the small school are similar if not identical to those found in the larger community. It is their intent to present suggestions and recommendations which apply in some instances in which the best practices are determined by the fact that the schools concerned are small. Chapters included are: The School Survey, General Education Needs of a Community, Community Characteristics Affecting School Plants, School Plant Characteristics in Small Community, Standards for Combination Rooms, Determining Building Needs in a Specific Community, Steps in Evaluating Existing School Plants, Improvement of Building Site and Exterior, Bringing Service Systems up to Standard, Other Phases of Renovation and Repair, and A Look Ahead.

The book deals exclusively with the building and modernizing of the small school plant, treating it not as a "big school in miniature" but as a building with its own peculiar problems. Plans for combination rooms, provisions for enrollment variation, facilities for multiple supervision are thoroughly discussed and illustrated. This is a valuable book for every superintendent and school architect.

WHITEHEAD, J. B. *The School and Its Community*. Baltimore 18, Md.: Johns Hopkins Press. 1951. 78 pp. \$2.00. This volume is an attempt to put into the fewest possible words an approach that will be of practical value to everyone whose interest in school-community relations has reached the

action point. The big problem in public school administration today is public relations. School-community relations has become the key element in successful school administration, for through sound working relations between each school and its community are established the finest type of public relations for a school system. That point of view permeates this guide.

- WILSON, M. E. *How to Help Your Child With Music*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1951. 170 pp. \$3.00. This is a guide for parents which will help them to develop the talent of their musical—or unmusical—offspring. The author's teaching experience is summarized herein. As the father of five children and having taught all of them music, he has the same vexing problems and questions to solve as his next-door neighbor. He shows how futile were the old-fashioned forcing methods which strained the nerves of parent and child and demonstrates how music can be fun to learn if parents know how to cope with the basic problems: At what age to begin lessons?, How to select an instrument?, How much do they cost?, How to select a teacher?, What about "learning by ear"?, How to keep a child interested in practising?, How long to practice?, and classic vs. jazz? Two features of this book are: (1) the list of specific suggestions for parents at the end of each chapter and (2) a detailed, illustrated chart containing complete and pertinent information about instruments.

Books for Pupil and Teacher Use

- ARCHIBALD, JOE. *Inside Tackle*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1951. 208 pp. \$2.50. It is almost certain that Willard University will win the Little Four Conference title. Enthusiasm on the campus runs high, and reaches its peak in the Squirrel Cage where the heroes of the gridiron live. They idolize the old coach, and are proud to be able to win the title and thus reward him for the years he spent moulding boys into real football players. But before the season is over, Matt Lowe, the substitute coach, takes over, and the players find that they've lost the inspiration to win. They resent him and disagree with his tactics, which are so different from the methods used by their beloved "Deacon" Webb. Led by Vince Hadley, captain of the squad, they manage to overcome the obstacles and, with grim determination and true sportsmanship, defeat their opponents, and go on to victory.
- AUDUBON, J. J. *Favorite Animals of America*, and *Favorite Birds of America*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap. 1951. Each 30 pp. (9" x 12½"). \$1.00 each. These two books consist primarily of excellent reproductions of Audubon's famous paintings of birds and animals with a minimum of text material by K. D. Morrison accompanying each picture. Preceding each book is a short biography of Audubon explaining how he happened to paint these pictures. Probably intended primarily for younger readers, these books can easily fascinate readers of all ages as the pictures are uniformly good, the textual material short and to the point. Each volume has only 30 pages each, including the pictures on the inside of the covers, but they should be popular enough to be read and re-read many times.
- BERNE, F. F. *The Amiable Baltimoreans*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc. 1951. 400 pp. \$5.00. The story of Maryland, and of Baltimore,

began with the Calverts, the six Lords Baltimore whose portraits hang on the walls of the Enoch Pratt Free Library. They even bequeathed their family colors, black and gold, to the state. So much a part of Baltimore life did these colors become that for years the barber poles had black and gold stripes. Here is the interesting story of the "Monumental City"; of its society life; of its merchant princes and its benefactors; of its political, historical, and literary heroes; and of its many other persons, places, and instances. The book is written in an interesting manner, and at the same time, portrays the author's hearty sense of humor. Indexed.

BRINDZE, RUTH. *The Story of the Totem Pole*. New York 17: Vanguard Press, Inc. 1951. 64 pp. \$2.50. In this, the first book of its kind, the author evokes the magic and mystery of the totem pole. It is the story of the pole's origin, its uses, and even how to "read" its strange and colorful decorations. From our own Northwest coast comes this exciting tale of Indians without a written language, who carved their history, legends, and remarkable adventures on the giant red cedars. This is the story, too, of the Indians themselves and of their way of life in a not-too-distant past.

BRISTOL, C. M. *The Magic of Believing*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951. 255 pp. \$3.95. This book is the author's exposition of the steps by which a person achieves any given aim. He, a businessman, describes methods which have worked for him and for other business and professional men. This book, in addition to the introduction, discusses in chapter order: "How you become what you contemplate," "Why hard work alone will not bring success," "How to make your objective the burning desire of your life," "How to bring the subconscious into practical action through a process of making mental pictures," "How to use 'the law of suggestion' on yourself, to step up your effectiveness in everything you do," "How to apply the power of your imagination to find ways and means of overcoming obstacles," "How to use 'the mirror technique' for releasing the subconscious," "How to project your thoughts and turn them into achievement," and "How belief makes things happen."

BUTTERS, D. G. *Ragmuffin Alley*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae-Smith Co. 1951. 206 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of a boarding-house group of young people who lived on a "dead-end" street. It tells of their adventures in the running of a puppet theater in a dilapidated warehouse. This is a novel for young people.

CARY, JOYCE. *Mister Johnson*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1951. 261 pp. \$3.00. *Mister Johnson* is one of several novels having as setting the remote region of Africa where the author was stationed as an officer of the British colonial service in the years immediately after World War I. Its central character is a West African Negro, "a young clerk who turns his life into a romance, a poet who creates for himself a glorious destiny." And the author adds: "As Johnson swims gaily on the surface of life, so I wanted the reader to swim, as all of us swim, with more or less courage and skill, for our lives."

CLOSTERMANN, PIERRE. *The Big Show*. New York 22: Random House, Inc. 1951. 242 pp. \$3.00. At the very outset the reader of this book loses contact with his own world and joins the author in the sky where, from the cramped cockpit of a zooming Spitfire, he lives through the dangers, the strains, the strange exhilarations of 420 sorties against the Nazi air

and ground forces. This is flying and fighting as it happened, recorded at the end of each day's heated action.

- COOK, F. A. *Return From the Pole*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1951. 335 pp. \$4.50. Here is the record of Dr. Cook's year-long struggle to get back to his base in Greenland after reaching "the Great Nail." He tells how he left the Pole on April 23, 1908, lost his way and his food supplies in the Polar ice drifts, and how he and his two Eskimos survived the rigorous year to reach their base again on April 18, 1909, long after he was believed dead. It is the story of a titanic fight for survival by three men in a land far from human habitation. In it are bear fights, bison hunts, tournaments with walruses—all with primitive improvised weapons and all as real as life and death. There is the story of the long Arctic winter spent in an underground den, and the Arctic dawn, the waking of the ravens and rats and foxes, the first impact of light. There are gripping adventures with dog teams and makeshift kayak boats, a voyage adrift on an iceberg, and the psychological experience of a civilized man living for a year under savage conditions.

In his introduction, Frederick J. Pohl, writer on exploration and author, re-examines the facts and claims in the Cook-Peary Polar controversy. In Pohl's objective study of the Polar controversy, he calls for a re-evaluation of Dr. Cook's claim to the North Pole.

- COSTAIN, T. B. *The Magnificent Century*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1951. 390 pp. \$4.00. It was during the period covered in this book, an age appropriately termed "the magnificent century," that England first made remarkable strides toward freedom, establishing principles of democratic rule which would later be accepted by the world. Englishmen returned home from the Crusades with the first implements for a new life—foreign books, medicines, and maps of the East; new foods, new heresies, and even new diseases.

This story of a great age is told in terms of the people who lived in it—the great and the small. Among many others, there are graphic portraits of the weak, vacillating monarch, Henry, and his beautiful wife, Eleanor of Provence, who became England's most hated queen; famous statesman and soldier, Simon de Montfort, whose personal feud with the royal family brought on civil war; courageous churchman, Robert Grosseteste, who taught his pupils the first glimmers of scientific truth; and Roger Bacon, a man of intellect and fascinating mystery, who developed the principles of research and experiment upon which scientific progress has been based. Indexed.

- CRAIG, LILLIAN. *The Singing Hills*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1951. 242 pp. \$3.00. Back in the 1930's as a young, enthusiastic school teacher, the author was consumed with the desire to write a book about the mountain people, their customs and lore. Through curious circumstances she was quite suddenly thrust among these Southern highlanders whose activities ranged from operating stills to practicing witchcraft and singing pure Elizabethan ballads. In these mountains, so aptly termed by their own inhabitants "the land of Nowhere," simple folk like Amos Tosh could say quite naively "We're powerful proud to have you." With this welcome, the author found it easy—yet startling—to be introduced to customs like giving tobacco to babies in their cradles as pacifiers, being

threatened as a "revenuer," and having a wild bear pay her an unexpected visit one morning.

This book is more than a chronicle of simple folk, much more than a poignant love story, far more than a startling adventure. Essentially, it is the personal experience of a sensitive young woman exposed to a group of deeply religious, incredibly naive men and women whose tie with civilization stems not from accepted contemporary mores, but rather from a communion with nature and with God.

DEVOE, ALAN. *This Fascinating Animal World*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 313 pp. \$3.75. In this book one of the country's most popular nature writers answers questions about animal life that people most frequently ask. As richly packed with strange and curious facts as an encyclopedia, this book also abounds in philosophical insight. The author has found that people everywhere are still asking the same sort of questions about natural history that he used to ask as a boy. The questions he has selected for this book are the universal How? Why? What? wonderings about the lives of the creatures around us.

EMERY, R. G. *Gray Line and Gold*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1951. 207 pp. \$2.50. The colorful and spirited cadet life at West Point does not completely absorb Joe McMinn during his final year. Joe's brilliant success on the football field makes him a national figure and spreads his popularity among influential people outside the Academy. His roommates sense that his interests are diverted from cadet life, while Joe is dazzled by impressive offers of money to play professional football. There is also pretty Cinda Holden, who has come to mean much to him.

FELS, W. C. editor. *The College Handbook*. New York 27: Secretary, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th St. 1951. 314 pp. \$1.00. This book contains descriptions of the 134 member colleges of the College Board, together with essential information about location, size terms of admission, programs of study, freshman year, costs, financial assistance, and where to write for further information.

FENNER, P. R. *Dogs, Dogs, Dogs*. New York 19: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1951. 284 pp. \$2.75. This is a book of dog stories by topnotch story writers—stories of a boxer's fight with a catamount, a sheep dog winning a silver cup, a Great Dane saving a man's life, an appealing collie pup outwitting a burgler, a gunshy dog suddenly cured when his master is in great danger; huskies, bulldogs, setters, foxhounds, all kinds of dogs with all kinds of people, in all kinds of situations.

FURMAN, A. L. editor. *Young Readers Horse Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press, Inc. 1951. 191 pp. \$2.50. Stories of horses have always been loved by young and old and in this volume are collected an exceptionally fine group of horse stories which to the knowledge of the editor have never before appeared in book form.

FURNAS, J. C. *Voyage to Windward*. New York 19: William Sloane Associates. 1951. 566 pp. \$5.00. The frail and indomitable figure of Robert Louis Stevenson rises from these pages. The author explores aspects of the life and mind and career of one of the most complex and entertaining figures in the world of writing—hotheaded, sensitive, unconventional with a high standard of literary excellence and a sparkling wit. Novelist and South Seas politician, essayist, artist, and children's poet, Stevenson

lived a difficult and fantastic existence in Europe, America—and finally the South Seas—with a zest and personal courage that are heartwarming to read about.

Here is the story of Stevenson finally woven together with many strands from previously untouched sources.

GRAF, HERBERT. *Opera for the People*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1951. 301 pp. \$5.00. Everyone who enjoys opera will enjoy this book, and many who think they don't like opera will be delighted to discover how they can enjoy it. As the author points out, opera in America today isn't all it could be, and he shows how opera can be developed into something more vital—a real force in the musical life of communities. As the long-time stage director of the Metropolitan Opera Company, the author is a foremost authority on opera production. From his wealth of practical experience, from his careful study of what others have done, and from his creative yet realistic thinking come his challenging proposals for a new kind of opera in America—opera for everyone.

HANDLIN, OSCAR. *The Uprooted*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1951. 310 pp. \$4.00. This is a book of the history of the great migrations to the New World—an epic story in one volume, with footnotes and references of how the peoples flooding to America made it the country that it is. This book is a combination of powerful feeling and long-time study that gives us the shape and the feel of things rather than just facts; the hopes and the yearnings of the emigrants that propelled them out of their old environment to chance the hazards of the new world; the imprint they made upon that world and how they, in turn, were affected by it and were changed.

Here we understand the meaning of immigration, not simply from the point of view of the society that was affected by it, but also from the point of view of the human beings who were involved in it. We understand the social and personal implications of separation from the old cultures and involvements in the new, for all those millions of immigrants who form the basis of the American population. And we understand better the nature of American culture and the problems of all uprooted people everywhere.

HEATH, H. E. and GELFAND, LOU. *How to Cover, Write, and Edit Sports*. Ames: Iowa State College Press, Press Building. 1951. 535 pp. \$5.00. Here is a "How-to-do-it" book—more than 500 pages of practical information on covering, writing, and editing the sports news. Intended for the sports journalist—the beginner in need of the fundamentals as well as the veteran searching for fresh ideas—it discusses all phases of sports coverage from desk work to the job of the television sportscaster, from note-taking methods, to maneuvering a sequence camera. The "sports-side" journalist learns how to cover major sporting events—what to watch for, terminology, how to talk with the athletes and take notes—and then how to report the action. The authors have drawn from personal experience for the authenticity of their presentation. More than 100 illustrations supplement the text.

HOYLE, FRED. *The Nature of the Universe*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1951. 154 pp. \$2.50. An enormous amount has been learned about the Universe since the days of Eddington and Jeans but no general theory has been advanced to knit things together in terms broad enough and

simple enough to be grasped by the vast majority who have no special knowledge of mathematics and physics. This challenge has been boldly accepted by a young Cambridge University astronomer—the result being a book which makes the titanic problems of time and space seem simple.

HUTCHINSON, E. L. and GAVIN, R. E. *Reference Manual for Stenographers and Typists*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co. 1951. 191 pp. This manual has been designed for ready reference and use by persons engaged in several types of endeavor—both students and workers. For example, it is designed for the stenographer who transcribes dictation in an office, as well as for the student who is preparing to do this kind of work; for the typist who types manuscripts, reports, and other materials, and the student who is learning to do so; for the advertising copywriter who types his own copy; for the author who types his manuscripts of books or articles—in short, for anyone who works with words, and principally through the medium of the typewriter. Such students and workers will find in these pages answers to many of the puzzling questions that constantly arise in the endeavor to turn out acceptable typescripts and mailable letters.

IVEY, JR., J. E.; BRELAND, W. W.; and DEMERATH, N. J. *Community Resources*. Philadelphia 7: J. C. Winston Co. 1951. 320 pp. \$2.56. The book was written to help American communities carry their share of the burden for extending democracy at home and abroad. The book has a simple plot designed to help junior high-school pupils learn the basic process of building good American communities. The plot unfolds with a word picture of how communities grow, what they are made of, and the kinds of communities in which man lives. The villains of the book are the many conditions that keep our communities from being good places in which to live.

JONES, R. R. *The Seventeenth Century*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. 1951. 400 pp. \$7.00. This volume is studies in the history of English thought and literature from Bacon to Pope. It was published to mark the occasion of Professor Richard Foster Jones's sixty-fifth birthday on July 7, 1951. It is a volume of essays in his honor. Professor Jones is honored as "a great scholar and inspiring pioneer in the study of English literature and thought of the seventeenth century." It contains five essays by Professor Jones, a discussion of his work by Marjorie Nicolson, a bibliography of Jones writings and a series of essays (fourteen in number) dealing with science and its relation to literature, literary and rhetorical theory and practice, and ideas of broadly philosophical interest.

JUDSON, C. I. *George Washington*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1951. 224 pp. Tall, strong, hot-tempered George is a real boy in this new biography, with a real boy's interests and zest for adventure. The author visited the farm by the Rappahannock where George lived as a boy; she has drawn a vivid picture of his background and has made the boy himself live again in her book. Here is a human and appealing story of the sandy-haired lad who went to Reverend Marye's school—the young surveyor, the burgess, the commander in chief, the President. Here, too, is the farmer, the husband, the father, the man who loved his family, his home, and his acres as dearly as he loved his country.

- JULIAN, J. L. *Practical News Assignments for Student Reporters*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. 1951. 164 pp. \$2.50. This book has been prepared to help the busy college professor of journalism in his efforts to increase the news reporting skill of his students. The book is composed of assignment sheets for student use. Essential and non-essential facts for news stories are given in the assignments as a means to show the students that it is as important to learn what to leave out of news stories as it is to learn what to put into them. The book is divided into twenty-six parts, each covering a particular type of news assignment.
- KAPLAN, MORDECAI; WILLIAMS, J. P.; and KOHN, EUGENE. *The Faith of America*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1951. 385 pp. \$4.50. This book is designed to foster faith in American democracy through the observance of our national holidays. Each holiday becomes not only a day for recreation but a means for deepening our democratic faith. Materials for programs are provided for the observance of each festival, and are organized about the particular aspect of the faith of America which is appropriate to it.
- KENNAN, G. F. *American Diplomacy, 1900-1950*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1951. 164 pp. \$2.75. In this book, a distinguished former counselor of the State Department—a man who was once called "America's diplomatic Chief of Staff"—makes a vivid, plainspoken appraisal of this country's foreign relations over the last fifty years. During this period America has participated in two destructive and seemingly futile world wars; if a third awaits us, its destructive power will be unparalleled. How has this country, so secure in the world of 1900, become so insecure in 1951? A key to this riddle, the author feels, may lie in the basic concepts and characteristic methods that have dominated our diplomacy. With a view to evaluating these concepts and methods, the author examines certain major phases of United States foreign policy over the past half century.
- LANGER, LAWRENCE. *The Magic Curtain*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc. 1951. 512 pp. \$6.60. This book is the autobiography of the Founder of The Theatre Guild, a book filled with information and alive with the prominent personalities of the greatest era of the American Theatre and American Invention. It is the story of a life in two fields—theatre and invention—and is illustrated with 113 photographs in gravure.
- LEIGHTON, MARGARET. *The Sword and the Compass*. Boston 7: Houghton, Mifflin Co. 1951. 264 pp. \$2.75. There is much more to the story of John Smith than his rescue from death by the Indian Princess Pocahontas. Here is the exciting life story of this swashbuckling hero who grew up in a small English village and became a great soldier-of-fortune. He was made prisoner by the Turks, sold as slave and sent to Constantinople, where he fell in love with his beautiful owner. Later, when he escaped and returned England, he was given a hero's welcome. But he soon sailed off to America and his greatest adventure. The hardships of the Jamestown colonization were overcome only because of his courage and skill in dealing with his men and with the Indians. In spite of twice being nearly hanged by jealous colonists and narrowly escaping death at the hands of hostile tribes, he managed to establish Jamestown permanently and to explore most of the eastern coast of America.

LEWIS, BRIGADIER SIR CLINTON, AND CAMPBELL, COL. J. D. *The American Oxford Atlas*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1951. 204 pp. (11 $\frac{1}{4}$ " \times 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ "). \$10.00. This completely new postwar atlas is a major work of scholarship and cartography—a practical atlas designed for modern needs and prepared for American readers. As a project of the University of Oxford, it is the product of accurate map research. World authorities on cartography and geography have contributed their knowledge. Government departments have made information available. The book itself is the result of the finest map printing and production.

With every map in the *Atlas* built up from a blank sheet of paper, full advantage was taken of new methods of map production developed during the war and of the latest geographical information, such as the findings of recent scientific explorations, new canals, pipe lines, communications, etc. Much of this information has never before been included in any atlas.

All ninety-six pages of maps are printed in color. Six different inks are used, which produce twelve tints, and a new system of 'color layering' indicates elevation and simulates molded relief. This obviates the necessity for contour lines and brings new clarity to detail. Political or administrative divisions are marked by heavy red boundary lines; place names and railroads are in black; rivers and canals in blue; roads in red. All place names have been hand lettered. The result is an atlas with maps of extraordinary legibility and beauty.

Five new projections have been used in this book. One of these, the "Oxford Projection," enables the land areas of the work to be shown on one spread at more than twice the scale heretofore possible on maps of this size. In fact, the majority of the maps in this atlas are on a scale unusually large for the printing area. Also, the scales are in relative proportion, so that it is easy to compare maps of different scales.

A ninety-six page Gazetteer contains thousands and thousands of entries. The latest population figures have been used throughout—in the case of the United States, those of the preliminary 1950 census, which have determined the selection and grading of town sites. Every place name on the maps appears in the Gazetteer with page numbers and co-ordinates; thus the maps are completely indexed. Where places are known by two names (such as Istanbul and Constantinople), both are given. In addition, historic places no longer in existence (Carthage, for example) are listed and their locations indicated.

A special twenty-five page section of the *Atlas* is devoted to distribution maps, showing up-to-date facts on climate, vegetation, geographical structure, population, and land use. Many of these maps project the entire world on double-page spreads. A unique series, covering the four seasons, shows precipitation and temperature on one map.

LOOMIS, J. P. *Trail of the Pinto Stallion*. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1951. 251 pp. \$2.50. Determined young Nat goes to the far West in search of his friend, Brent Logan, a Rocky Mountain trapper, in the year 1832. Nat believes he can follow and find Brent through hearing of Kiowa, Brent's unforgettable pinto horse. The boy crosses the Great Plains in the trading expedition of Captain Bonneville. He meets famed mountain men like Jim Bridger and sees the colorful rendezvous of traders, Indians, and trappers. But when at last Nat does find Kiowa, the boy is a prisoner of the Crow Indians and the pinto stallion is being ridden by their chief!

- MACFIE, HARRY. *Wasa-Wasa*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1951. 288 pp. \$3.00. In the language of the Indian, *Wasa-Wasa* means *far, far away*. In the far and distant North this story of friendship and adventure takes place. Harry Macfie, a Swede of Scottish Highland descent, emigrated to Canada in 1897. Sam Kilburn, "the best friend and partner any man ever had," was also of Highland origin. These men shared together the most exciting years of the Gold Rush in north Canada and Alaska. They hunted and trapped together in the wilderness. They trekked into unknown lands with their devoted dog team, the leader of which was the unforgettable Royal. They faced great dangers, starvation, and tests of strength and endurance. They lived with the Indians, became their friends, learned their skills, also their treachery. And they found gold. This book of vivid reminiscence, translated from the Swedish original, is in the tradition of the sagas.
- McILVAINE, J. S. *Copper's Chance*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1951. 232 pp. \$2.50. Copper Shannon—an elflike girl of 17, with copper-gold hair and green eyes—has been brought up around horses. Her father was a famous jockey, and her "Uncle Jim" O'Malley is trainer for the Wainbridge horses. So it is little wonder that her one true love is Fleet Chance, the big black that belongs to the well-to-do Mr. Wainbridge. When everyone else has given up in despair, Copper at last realizes her dream and has the opportunity to ride the outlaw horse—and to the amazement of all, manages to get him around the race course. Her patience and understanding accomplish what all else fails to do.
- MCMEEKIN, I. McL. *Ban-Joe and Grey Eagle*. New York 19: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1951. \$2.50. Ban-Joe was too young for the job he wanted—but he got it, just the same. He learned new things about horses, and Boots taught him to be a jockey. More than that, Ban-Joe was really lucky. He found good friends—warm-hearted Mrs. Dan and crusty old Dan himself; spicy, quick-tempered Ginger, who disliked him at first sight, and had to be convinced; kindly Dr. Rowan, Mister Al, Mister Sid, and all the others who understood how a boy might feel about a horse. But most of all, Ban-Joe treasured Boots and Barker and Grey Eagle! When the great time came for Grey Eagle to race Wagner, Ban-Joe was ready for the crisis that came. He did what he could to help Grey Eagle win.
- MYERS, HENRY. *The Utmost Island*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1951. 216 pp. \$3.00. The first modern novel about a certain famous voyage, this book is an epic tale of the Iceland Vikings and the Norse gods they worshipped a thousand years ago. It was the end of the Stone Age, when a pirate could still find his personal goddess in earthly form and marry her. But then, as now, the world was on the brink of a tremendous change. There were new Sea-Kings to challenge pirates then, and new priests to challenge the old faith.
- NORTON, ANDRE. *Huon of the Horn*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 208 pp. \$2.75. When Huon, the young Duke of Bordeaux, and his brother, Gerard, traveled toward the court of Charlemagne to pay homage to the old king, they were ambushed by a black-hearted knight, Amaury, who wished to bring about their ruin. Huon, in self-defense, not knowing the identity of his opponent, beheaded Charlemagne's son, who followed Amaury in his evil ways. Then it was, through Amaury's treachery, that

Charlemagne unjustly banished Huon from his kingdom, not to return to France until he had fulfilled an almost impossible quest in Babylon—the very stronghold of the Saracens. How Huon—aided by Oberon, King of the Fairies, and his magic horn—fulfilled the quest and returned to defend his dukedom from a powerful enemy makes a dramatic reading for any boy who loves adventure.

PHELPS, MARGARET. *Ketch Dog*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1951. 223 pp. \$2.50. The first night that Wade Compton is a guest of Old Medley's on an Arizona ranch, he hears the strange and wild howl of the ketch dog. When Wade catches his first glimpse of the wild dog, he knows that if he can have the ketch dog for his own, he'll never be lonely again.

The big problem is how to capture this wild dog who makes its home in the canyon and the Silent City. How Wade manages this, with the help of the cowboys, Scissors and Straddle Bug, and how he tames the dog makes an entertaining story.

PRICE, GEORGE. *We Buy Old Gold*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1951. Unpaged. \$2.95. This book is the author's first collection of *New Yorker* cartoons in six years. None have appeared before in book form. Now they are gathered together, in a grand bunch of wonderful nonsense. George Price draws Man in his various pursuits. This may be a solemn way of describing Price cartoons, but it doesn't make them any less funny, especially when you consider some of the things Man pursues. Culling is an old English word meaning "cut it out and paste it up." This book is a pre-culled book for the millions who don't like or haven't time to do their own culling—but want to do their own laughing.

Rand McNally *Cosmopolitan World Atlas*. (new census edition) Chicago 5: Rand McNally and Co. 1951. 392 pp. (11 $\frac{3}{8}$ " x 14 $\frac{3}{4}$ "), including 144 pp. of full-color maps; heavy buckram binding. \$12.50. The new and enlarged Rand McNally *Cosmopolitan World Atlas* recently made its appearance on the nation's book counters. This brand new edition surpasses the brilliant achievements of the first edition, which earned the Carey-Thomas Award as the most outstanding example of creative publishing in 1950. Never before has so complete a summary of world conditions been presented between the covers of a single volume. Never before has so much important information been made so easily available, and in so beautiful a format. Never before has there been such a need for this vital reference work.

Six entirely new maps in full color have been added to illustrate world trouble spots and other areas that are attracting global attention: Iran and Afghanistan, seething in the oil-fired tensions of international strife; Central Germany, on a scale large enough to show the intimate details of the world battlefield, and to supplement the map of Germany and its neighbors, retained from the earlier edition; additional maps of the Pacific Islands, stepping stones to world domination; Newfoundland, recently joined politically with Labrador and elevated to the status of a province of Canada; Ireland and Scotland, drawn on the same scale as the map of England, to show all parts of the British Isles with equal fullness of detail.

There are in addition, 27 pages of new comparative world maps, in beautiful color: maps showing graphically the distribution of the world's

economic and natural resources, world climate variations, population densities; maps showing the territorial growth of the U.S., and the locations of our national parks and monuments, and other facts needed by every person who claims to be well informed. All place names on the maps are set in clear, legible type selected for instant readability, and appear horizontally to insure easy reference.

A distinctive double spread portraying Europe and Asia in 1950, 1930, and 1914, showing territorial transfers and boundary changes, is typical of the beauty and contemporary character of the *Cosmopolitan*. This and all the other new features make it very clear how indispensable an up-to-the minute atlas is today—at home and for school use.

New tables have been compiled to list such useful information as the great metropolitan centers of the world ranked according to population, world discoveries and explorations, and a complete census table showing the growth of our country and each state decade by decade.

New population figures, from the latest official census, not only for the United States but for 35 foreign countries, highlight the all-in-one index. Every name on every map is shown in the 173 page universal index which contains more than 75,000 entries. Each entry is keyed to its respective map location and, in the case of towns and cities, population figures are shown. Thus, you can locate immediately a mountain, river, cape, bay, city, or town, no matter where it exists in the world.

REGLI, ADOLPH. *Young Readers Cowboy Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press, Inc. 1951. 188 pp. \$2.50. Here are stories of courage and stamina; of a young boy's love for his horse and the devotion of a horse to his young master, of hard riding, of ranch life and the responsibilities that go with it. The life of the range here portrayed presents a picture of the life of the modern west which has carried on the noblest traditions of the fine clean life of the old west of fame and glory.

REGLI, ADOLPH. *Fiddling Cowboy in Search of Gold*. New York 19: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1951. \$2.50. Seventeen-year-old Ross takes part in a gold rush, and knows the creaking wagon trains, the hostile Indians, the mud, the cold, the gruelling trek through the Badlands, the rewarding thrill of those first few shining flakes in the gold pan, at French Creek. He has plenty of excitement. Meeting with Loco Butterworth and the other cowhands of the Double Bee Ranch; racing his horse, Dixie; making friends with Wild Bill Hickok, Calamity Jane, and General Crooks; helping to build a colony in the wilderness; serving as a scout for the United States Cavalry are only a few of his adventures. Dakota Gold Rush days of 1874 are Indian days, too. And here the Indians appear—real people in a desperate plight—as the touching story of their betrayal is told, a contrast to the triumph and adventure of the gold rush.

ROBBINS, R. H. *The T. S. Eliot Myth*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1951. 226 pp. \$3.00. T. S. Eliot occupies a unique, but not unchallenged, position in modern English letters. This book raises the challenge and appraises Eliot as poet, as critic, as a man.

The author, as the title implies, rejects the uncritical (and often anticritical) estimates of cultists who have enthroned Eliot as a genius of English poetry. Yet the author rejects equally those who dismiss Eliot without a serious and principled study of his works.

ROBERTS, H. L. *Rumania*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press. 1951.

428 pp. \$6.00 The recent history of Rumania provides a particularly illuminating case study of the tribulations besetting a comparatively retrograde agrarian society in the dynamic and industrialized world of the twentieth century. In the years since the First World War, Rumania has experienced a wide variety of political experiments seeking, or purporting to seek, an easement of these tribulations. The aim of this book is to analyze the five major political movements successively in power in terms of their programs and achievements, especially in regard to the chronic and refractory agrarian crisis. Each of these movements—the Liberal Party, the National Peasant Party, the royal dictatorship of King Carol, the Iron Guard and Antonescu fascist dictatorships, and the present Communist dictatorship—is seen to represent a distinct complex of attitudes and interests not merely deriving from the problems of Rumania but drawing extensively from more general currents of political thought stemming from the West or arising in reaction to it.

The general conclusion reached is that both the political and the economic life of Rumania reflect a continuing dislocation produced in large part by the overwhelming impact of Western industrialized society—its technology, economic practices, and political ideas—upon the local institutions of an agrarian society in the course of the last century. There is little evidence that Rumanian society by itself had it in its power in the last generation to adjust this dislocation.

SECHRIST, E. H. *Poems for Red Letter Days*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1951. 349 pp. \$3.50. There are more than 275 poems in this collection, including hard-to-find selections for *I Am an American Day*, (now called *Citizenship Day*), *United Nations Day*, *Pan American Day*; poems for religious holidays such as *Christmas and Easter*; poems for birthdays and commencement; as well as for special weeks celebrated in the schools, such as *Book Week*, *Fire Prevention Week*, *Boy Scout and Girl Scout Week*. Also, here for the first time in one volume are the lyrics for the various state songs, including Alaska and Hawaii.

SHUB, BORIS, and QUINT, BERNARD. *Since Stalin*. New York 18: Swen Publications Co., Inc. 1951. 184 pp. \$3.95. This book (9" x 12") is a visual history of Communism—documented, damning, and hopeful. The photographic material has been collected, over a two-year period, from commercial and private sources throughout the world. The book traces the road of Communism with the original milestones restored. It is a history told in a parade of 425 photographs and text. Here you read of Lenin's first arrest in 1895, of the Russian Revolution of 1917, of the purges, of the "dress-rehearsal" in Spain for World War II, of "treason" trials, of Poland's subjugation, of the millions of slaves in labor camps, of the seeds of revolt in the Soviet army—all shown, stated, and documented. On reading this, one is convinced that Communism tolerates no friends; you must be either its slave or its enemy.

SMITH, CECIL. *Musical Comedy in America*. New York 16: Theatre Arts Books. 1951. 384 pp. \$5.00. The first book on the subject, it begins with the 1840's and *The Black Crook* (1866) and comes down to *South Pacific*. Written with wit and nostalgia, it is also an authoritative reference volume. It is the story of glamorous personalities, the hilarious panorama

of shows—minstrels, pantomimes, burlesques, light operas, revues, and true musical comedies—of the tunes and lyrics that are fused with the nation's pleasantest memories.

- SNOW, E. R. *True Tales of Buried Treasure*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1951. 288 pp. \$3.00. This is a rare item! Doubloons and pieces of eight! It is a book of nothing but true stories concerning buried treasure. The author leads you to fabulous Oak Island, Nova Scotia, where over \$400,000 has been spent in vain to find a treasure worth \$10,000,000; to the West Indies, where Sir William Phips found over a million on a sunken treasure ship; to a treasure cave where Pirate Morgan buried his loot; to Bermuda, where many fabulous treasures have been uncovered. The author also reveals no less than sixty individual authentic treasure-finds up and down the Atlantic coast, and suggests many more locations where treasure can be discovered.
- SPENCER III, DICK. *Pulitzer Prize Cartoons*. Ames: Iowa State College Press, Press Building. 1951. 125 pp. \$2.75. The most coveted award in the field of editorial cartooning is that bestowed each year through the will of the late Joseph Pulitzer. Here the winning cartoons and the story behind them are presented for the first time in one volume. With each cartoon, the author has included a biographical sketch of the man who drew it, and a summary of the important news events that took place during the year.
- STRONG, PHIL. *Hirum the Hillbilly*. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1951. 104 pp. \$2.75. Hirum was a gray mule—which is the best and also the stubbornest kind of mule—with large, sad eyes about the size, shape, and color of Long Island oysters. Now the good thing about a mule being stubborn is that, once you get him concentrated on doing something, he will do it or bust. Hirum was quite fond of young Wesley and if Wes had put the petrified forest on their rick hauling wagon, Hirum would have pulled it—or pushed the United States two inches into the Pacific Ocean trying! What Hirum actually did do for Wes was to use some highly selective and well-placed foot work on a certain shiny red convertible to convince the smiley pair of city promoters that they couldn't play any slick-tricks on his folks when it came to trying to get hold of the family farm after the Ozarks Power and Electric Company decided to build a dam in that very ripple of the mountains.
- TRACY, MARIAN. *More Casserole Cookery*. New York 17: Viking Press, Inc. 1951. 160 pp. \$2.50. This book of recipes for casserole cooking includes foods introduced in the last ten years, and many unusual foods now more easily available. The list of foods are divided into those kept on the shelves, the freezer, and the refrigerator. This book supplements the author's previous book, *Casserole Cookery*.
- VERISSIMO, ERICO. *Time and the Wind*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1951. 624 pp. \$4.95. The scene of this book is the southernmost part of Brazil (now the province of Rio Grande do Sul)—a land that produced generations of bold, virile men and passionate, resourceful women. One hundred and fifty years of history are reflected in the fortunes of one family, the Terra-Cambarás. Bandits become respectable land-owners, businessmen turn revolutionary, slaves are freed; there are wars, murders and feuds, poverty and great wealth, flaming affairs of the heart, and stubborn defenses of family pride.

- WILLIAMS, W. C. *The Autobiography of William Carlos Williams*. New York 22: Random House, Inc. 1951. 416 pp. \$3.75. In the first decade of the century, William Carlos Williams became a practicing physician and published his first book. Now, at the age of 68, he looks back to his childhood and youth and to more than forty full years of accomplishment in the medical and literary fields—the years during which he became a busy small-town doctor and the author of more than thirty published works that include novels, short stories, poetry, and essays.
- WILLIAMSON, MARGARET. *The First Book of Birds*. New York 19: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1951. 70 pp. \$1.75. This illustrated book tells surprising things about birds; about feathers with zippers; eyes with extra eyelids like windshield wipers; stomachs like grinding machines; how birds do all things in their busy, busy lives—the wonderful things that make a bird a bird. In five colors.
- WOOLF, N. S. *Glovesmaking for Beginners*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Pub. Co. 1951. 102 pp. (7¼" × 10¼"). \$1.50. The student is presented instructions in this art through text, pictures, and diagrams. The course, divided into twenty-three units, covers the entire range of steps from the tanning of glove leathers to the washing and pressing of the completed glove. The instructions are detailed and simple. As a result, the book could effectively provide the instruction in this art for an interesting and practical high-school club activity.
- ZABEL, M. D. *The Portable Henry James*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1951. 704 pp. \$2.50. The remarkable revival of Henry James during the past decade has witnessed the republication of many of his novels, stories, and books of non-fiction; but, thus far, no single volume has presented the wider scope and variety of James's work. This *Portable* shows the varied facets of his genius. Included complete are three *nouvelles*; five of his best shorter tales, a selection of critical writings; essays on Rome, Paris, London, and New York; passages from his autobiographical memoirs and notebooks; and some of the finest letters of modern times, covering almost fifty years of his life. The writings range from 1865 to 1915 and show James's full development as a moral historian of his age and as a genius of style.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

- Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education for the Evaluation of Educational Experiences of Military Personnel*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W. 1951. 60 pp. A state by state report with general summary.
- ADELL, J. C. and WELTON, L. E. *A Laboratory Course in Biology*. Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1951. 282 pp. \$2.20. A workbook of fourteen units of live learning experiences.
- Aids to Visual Education*. New York 32: Stanley Bowmar Co., 513 West 166th St. 1951. 32 pp. Free. Filmstrips and slides of most of the major producers are listed and classified. Educational records receive a good deal of attention too. The catalog describes units from the ultimate in the way of a custom-built, high-fidelity player to a sturdy, light-weight, clear-toned, classroom three-speed machine.

- All Teachers Can Teach Reading (1951 Yearbook)*. Plainfield: New Jersey Secondary-School Teachers Association, c/o Lester D. Beers, 1035 Kenyon Ave. 1951. 63 pp. How classroom teachers of any subject can develop reading skills in pupils. Methods are set forth clearly and simply for incorporating elements of reading development in classroom work. Especially useful in schools not having a remedial reading program.
- Annotated List of Phonograph Records*. New York 38: Children's Reading Service, 106 Beekman St. 1951. 48 pp. 10¢. This new 1952 catalog, edited by Dr. Warren S. Freeman, Dean of the College of Music of Boston University, presents about 1,000 carefully chosen recordings from many record companies, arranged by subject areas and grade groups. Recordings are listed not only for music, but also for language arts, science, and social science from kindergarten through senior high school. Each listing in the catalog includes the title, composer, recording artist, available speeds (33, 35, 78 rpm), price for each speed, size, whether or not it is unbreakable, and a description. To assist teachers in securing the records of their choice, the Children's Reading Service has set up a central ordering service whereby any record, whether or not is listed in the catalog, can be supplied at the best possible school discount.
- Annual Report (1950-1951)*. Evanston, Illinois: Supt., Evanston Twp. High School and Community College. 1951. 74 pp. A report of features of the year's program of interest to the public plus factual material concerning the academic program.
- Audio-Visual Materials on American Democracy for Secondary Schools*. Los Angeles: County Supt. of Schools. 1951. 31 pp. Many kinds of instructional materials are listed with study guides and approaches for the teaching of democracy.
- BANNING, M. C. *A New Design for the Defense Decade*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W. 1951. 13 pp. Single copy, 15¢; 10 copies, \$1.25; and 25 copies, \$2.50. A report of the findings of the conference on women in the defense decade.
- BLITZER, CLARA and ROSS, DONALD. *The Right School*. New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 West 120th St. 1951. \$2.00. Based on Metropolitan School Study Council research on school quality over the past ten years, the pamphlet seeks to provide a sound basis for the citizen to judge his school system.
- Career Planning*. New York 7: Pace College, 225 Broadway. 1951. Rev. 32 pp. An aid in answering these questions for high-school students: How to decide on a career; what you can get out of college; and how to select your college.
- Causes of Industrial Peace Under Collective Bargaining*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Association, 800-21st St., N. W. 1951. 96 pp. \$1.00. The report shows how the Minnequa Plant of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Corporation at Pueblo, Colorado, and two locals of the United Steelworkers of America (CIO) have overcome a number of problems facing many companies in the steel industry.
- Committee on Family Financial Security Education, 488 Madison Ave., New York 22. Publications of: 1951. Single copy free. Materials developed in summer workshops on financial security instruction at the University of Pennsylvania:

- Building for Family Financial Security in Home and Family Living.* A teacher's resource unit for use in high-school home management, family living, social studies, or business courses. 59 pp.
- Family Financial Security Education for Mathematics Students.* A teacher's resource unit for use in grades 9-12. 36 pp.
- Financial Security Topics for Teachers.* An illustrated news bulletin issued periodically throughout the school-year. 4 pp.
- Information about Summer Workshops in Family Financial Security Education.*
- A List of Motion Pictures and Filmstrips on Financial Security.* An annotated bibliography of free and inexpensive films. 15 pp.
- Partnership in Family Financial Security in the Early Years of Marriage.* A teacher's resource unit for use in a senior high-school family living course. 22 pp.
- Some Supplementary Teaching Aids on Financial Security.* An annotated list of free and inexpensive booklets. 16 pp.
- Teaching Financial Security.* Illustrated booklet describing Committee's program. 8 pp.
- Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Ave., N. W., Washington 25, D. C. Publications of:
- Program for lecturing and Post Doctoral Research Awards under the Fulbright Act.* 33 pp.
- The Fulbright Program.* 8 pp.
- The Fulbright Awards.* 10 pp.
- Co-operation, Not Compulsion.* (A reprint from *War Service: The Twenty-fifth Annual Debate Handbook.*) Washington 6, D. C.: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 718 Jackson Pl., N. W. 1951. 30 pp. The entire Handbook can be obtained from Mr. Bower Aly, Executive Secretary, Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Co-Operation, National University Extension Association, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.
- Dedication of David Sarnoff Research Center.* Princeton, N. J.: R C A Laboratories Division. 1951. 36 pp. Ceremonies dedicating a plaque and naming R C A laboratories in honor of David Sarnoff to commemorate his forty-five years of service to radio.
- Developing Life Adjustment Education in a Local School.* Washington 25, D. C.: J. Dan Hull, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. 1951. 24 pp. A bulletin to implement a program of curriculum development.
- Division of Statistics, Bureau of Research and Statistics, Board of Education, 228 North La Salle St., Chicago, Ill. Publications of:
- Facts and Figures.* 52 pp.
- Good Morning Teacher.* 43 pp.
- Our Chicago Public Schools—Supt.'s Annual Report, 1950-1951.* 48 pp.
- This is Vocational Education in the Chicago Public Schools.* 44 pp.
- The Earth and Its Peoples.* New York 29: United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave. 1951. The *Earth and Its Peoples* Series of films, thirty-six motion pictures, has been made for the teaching of geography, social studies, and international understandings. The Series is based on the fundamental concept that physical conditions set problems with which the people of a region must deal. The brochure describes the content of the thirty-six

- films. The Series is to be integrated with geography and social studies. Each group is geared to broad areas of study. Adaptable for use at any level.
- Education Unlimited.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 35 pp. 15¢. Features of a school responsive to community needs. How village and rural schools can overcome the handicaps in inadequate plant and equipment, small enrollment, restricted curriculum, and small staff.
- Elementary-School Libraries Today.* Washington 6, D. C.: Dept. of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 415 pp. \$3.00. The Department's 30th Yearbook. Stimulating ideas on organizing and operating effective elementary-school libraries. Presents the library as the center of school life. Nine chapters provide interesting treatment of: Role of library in today's elementary school; Service to pupils and teachers, curriculum and community; Staff—professional and volunteer, training and duties; Books and materials—selections and appraisal; Organization and housing—library routine and physical requirements; Arousing interest of school and community; Co-operative undertakings; Growth of program; and Forward trends in thinking and planning.
- Eleventh Annual Science Talent Search.* Washington 6, D. C.: Science Clubs of America, 1719 N St., N. W. 1951. 22 pp. Details of the Eleventh Annual Science Talent Search.
- The English Record.* Hamilton, N. Y.: New York State English Council, Colgate University. Fall 1951. 40 pp. 25¢. Conference reports on a miscellany of topics—poetry, written expression, oral communication, reading, listening, and instruction.
- The Fairfield Experiment.* New York 22: Joint Council on Economic Education, 444 Madison Ave. 1951. How the schools led a community to consider national economic problems.
- 50th Annual Report of the Director.* New York 27: Secretary, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 W. 117th St. 1950. 83 pp. 50¢. The activities of the year, an analysis of the candidates, the personnel of the Board, examiners, readers, and a list of examination centers.
- GARRETT, GARET. *Ex-America.* Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1951. 42 pp. 75¢. The author, a former newspaper writer, criticizes the political-economic concepts of the present day.
- The General Shop in the Small High School.* Laramie: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Wyoming. 1951. 41 pp. 50¢. Information pertaining to the operation of a functional shop program. Ideas relative to the content and organization of the shop program.
- Government Best Sellers.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 55 pp. A classified list of popular representative government publications.
- Guidance Service Manual.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates. 1951. 36 pp. Available without charge, to qualified educators and youth-service workers. A special manual to help guidance and youth service workers.
- Human Relations in Higher Education.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W. 1951. 74 pp. \$1.00. A report of a national student conference on problems of campus life. Contains the recommendations drafted for improving human relations and making democracy a reality in higher education.
- Infant Care, Ninth Edition.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 20¢. Like its predecessors, this edition of *Infant Care*, is an attempt by

- the Childrens Bureau to bring together the best known and most widely accepted modern ideas about what is good for children from birth to their first birthday. Useful not only in homes but in home-making courses.
- In Quest of Peace and Security.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 120 pp. 55¢. Selected documents on American foreign policy.
- Keystones of Good Staff Relationships.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 16 pp. Twelve steps toward improved staff relationships which figure in teacher-holding power and maximum efficiency.
- KRAMER, M. D. *Deft Driving.* Dearborn, Mich.: Ford Motor Co. 1950. 44 pp. Facts to present and habitudes to develop in driver training courses.
- The Kremlin Speaks.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 37 pp. 15¢. Excerpts from statements made by the leaders of the Soviet Union on plans, aims, techniques, freedom, education, international co-operation.
- Land of the Free.* Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Land Management, U. S. Dept. of Interior. 1938. 18 pp. The public domain—the scope of land development in the country's history—with data concerning the land for which the title has passed from the government and that for which the title remains with the government.
- LAUCHNER, A. H. *Junior High School Tour and Study.* Great Neck, N. Y.: Principal, Great Neck Jr. High School. 1951. 8 pp. Mimeo. Report and findings of an observation tour of seventy-one junior high schools.
- Legal Status of the School Superintendent.* Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. Oct. 1951. 44 pp. 50¢. Contents: Over-All View of the Superintendency; General Legal Status of Superintendents; Qualifications of Eligibility; Selection, Tenure, Dismissal; Salaries; Powers and Duties; Evaluation. An Appendix contains basic sources of information and school law reports.
- Library of Congress, Music Division, Washington 25, D. C. Publications of: *On the Meaning of Music.* 26 pp; *Paganiniana.* 19 pp; *So You've A Song To Publish.* 8 pp; *The Use of the Flutes in the Works of J. S. Bach.* 23 pp.
- Mars Hill, North Carolina.* Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, Defense Commission, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1951. 22 pp. Report of an investigation of a case involving the coercion of teachers through political pressures.
- National Association of Manufacturers, Literature Dept., 444 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y. Publications of:
- Pioneers of Progress.* 1951. Rev. 38 pp. Frontiers of progress and freedom through the ages.
- Teaching Aids.* 1951. 29 pp. Catalog of publications on current problems, vocational guidance, America's heritage of freedom.
- Working Together.* 1951. 44 pp. A manual to assist business, industry, and education in organizing and conducting work-study training courses for youth.
- Your Future.* 1951. Rev. 30 pp. Directed to youth to aid in setting and attaining personal goals.
- Occupational Handbook of the United States Air Force.* Washington 25, D. C.: Headquarters, U. S. Air Force, The Pentagon. 1951. 191 pp. A manual for vocational guidance counselors and air force personnel officers.
- Our Investment in Public Education a Challenge to School Finance.* Athens: Center for Educational Service, Ohio University. 1951. 60 pp. A report of the annual conference on education administration.

- Our Southern Neighbors.* New York: Office of Educational Activities, New York Times. 1951. Unpaged. Based upon the film strip of the same title, the material briefly summarizes the socio-economic background of Latin American countries.
- Point Four Pioneers.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 36 pp. 20¢. A report on technical assistance to Liberia, Paraguay, and India in popular form.
- Propaganda: Battle for Men's Minds.* New York 18: Newsweek, 152 West 42nd St. Oct. 1951. Analyzes the vital and invisible struggle taking place today which can win or lose the Cold War. Each month *Platform* takes up a different newsworthy, usually controversial, question. It takes no sides, supplies no ready-made solutions. Its purpose is to present as many key facts as it can and to encourage the discussion groups which use it to think through the problem in their own.
- Publications of the Department of State.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 16 pp. A semiannual list for the first half of 1951, classified and annotated.
- Recovery Record.* London, England: His Majesty's Stationery Office. 1951. 36 pp. Two shillings and sixpence. The story of Marshall Aid in Britain.
- Recreation and Park Yearbook.* New York 10: National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave. 1951. 72 pp. A review of local and county recreation and park developments between 1900 and 1950.
- Red Letter Days for December.* Washington 8, D. C.: Marketing Research Services, Inc., The Windsor Park—Suite 619, 2300 Conn. Ave., N. W. 1951. 16 pp. 35¢ each or 3 for \$1.00. Practical ideas for the teacher for Christmas. Suggestions for music, drama, and art activities. Ideas for the library. Projects for classrooms and clubs. Fund raising activities which are educational. Charitable and community projects. Christmas customs in foreign lands and the origin of our holiday customs. One of a series of ten pamphlets on special occasions in the schools.
- Red Letter Days for January.* Washington 8, D. C.: Marketing Research Services, Inc., The Windsor Park—Suite 619, 2300 Conn. Ave., N. W. 1952. 16 pp. 35¢ each or 3 for \$1.00. Plans for New Year's Day and Thrift Week; the birthdays of Robert E. Lee and Franklin D. Roosevelt; Youth Week and Hobby Week; dedicatory ceremonies for the laying of a cornerstone and for a founder's day anniversary.
- Red Letter Days for February.* Washington 8, D. C.: Marketing Research Services, Inc., The Windsor Park—Suite 619, 2300 Conn. Ave., N. W. 1952. 16 pp. 35¢ each or 3 for \$1.00. A wealth of ideas for observing Brotherhood Week in dramatics, music, assembly, cafeteria, library, art, social studies, English, school publications, and commencement. Educational activities for observing the birthdays of Lincoln, Washington, and Saint Valentine. Miscellaneous projects for Crime Prevention Week, Mardi Gras, and the birthdays of Susan B. Anthony, Horace Greeley, Cyrus H. McCormick, and Thomas A. Edison. Practical suggestions usable at many grade levels in schools of any size.
- The Republic of Austria.* New York 17: Austrian Consulate General, 509 Fifth Ave. 1951. 6 pp. A concise factual description of Austria.
- Resource Material on Inflation.* No. 3401. Washington 25, D. C.: Home Economics Education Service, Div. of Vocational Education, Office of Educa-

- tion, Federal Security Agency, 1951. 13 pp. Suggestions for studying inflation as a part of consumer education problems in homemaking classes.
- School Camping.* Laramie: Bureau of Educational Research and Service Bulletin, Univ. of Wyo. 1951. 68 pp. \$1.00. A guide based on an experiment in the University's elementary school.
- School Lunch and Nutrition Education.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 12 pp. 10¢. A discussion of the school lunch program and nutrition education in question and answer form.
- School Report (1950-1951).* Newton, Mass.: Supt. of Schools. The annual report, which marks the 250th anniversary of the school.
- South Africa Today.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th St. 1951. 32 pp. 25¢. A warning of the serious and possibly tragic consequences of the rising racial and political tensions in South Africa is sounded by a South African author and social scientist.
- Stay in School.* 1951. 32 pp. Obtainable at your nearest Navy Recruiting Station. A cartoon pamphlet of advice to take a long view and stay in school.
- Steps to Peace.* Philadelphia 7: American Friends Service Committee, 20 South 12th St. 1951. 64 pp. 1 to 20 copies 25¢; 21 to 99 copies 20¢; and 100 or more copies 15¢. A Quaker view of U. S. foreign policy. An examination of American foreign policy in terms of its objectives.
- Successful Experiences in English: A Remedial and Developmental Program.* Long Island City 1: Long Island City High School, 41st Ave. and 29th St. 1951. \$1.25. Six years of work in Long Island City High School's English Department with slow learners.
- The Tenth Anniversary of Freedom House.* New York 16: Freedom House, Willkie Memorial Bldg., 29 W. 40th St. 28 pp. Goals of a free society as stated by Paul Gray Hoffman in an anniversary address commemorating the founding of Freedom House.
- Training Analysis and Development Information Bulletin.* Scott Air Force Base, Illinois: TA and D Directorate, Deputy Chief of Staff Operations, Headquarters, Air Training Command. 1951. 94 pp. Among the articles contained in this bulletin is one outlining the history of aviation education.
- Tulare County Schools Progress Report.* Visalia, California: Tulare County Schools Court House, P.O. Bin 911. 1951. A report stressing experiences for living which are provided in the schools of Tulare County and the need for school-community co-operation in attacking problems such as teacher turnover, emergency certification, and scattered small districts.
- Unconquered.* New York 1: National Committee for a Free Europe, Inc., 350 Fifth Ave., Rm. 301. 1951. 15¢ each; 100 or more, 12¢ each. The story of a courageous Czechoslovakian patriot, Milada Horakova, who, despite imprisonment under both Nazi and Communist dictatorships, was a true defender of democracy and sacrificed her life for the principles of liberty.
- The United Nations and You.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 50 pp. 30¢. A contribution to a better understanding of the United Nations.
- United Nations, Department of Public Information, New York, New York. Publications of:
- Issues Before Economic and Social Council's Thirteenth Session.* 15 pp. (Reprint from July 1951 *United Nations Bulletin*.)
- Magna Carta for Refugees.* Aug. 1951. 54 pp. 25¢. The text of the Convention of the Status of Refugees.

News Notes

OCCUPATIONAL HANDBOOK.—Today in our Armed Forces emphasis is being placed on the value of an education. The U. S. Armed Forces believe that a soldier's value is in direct relation to the degree of specialized training he can absorb and put to use. The Air Force has recently published a 192-page handbook entitled *Occupational Handbook of the United States Air Force* as a manual for vocational guidance counselors and Air Force personnel officers. In the foreword, Chief of Staff, Hoyt S. Vandenberg, states an airman "can better take advantage of the training provided by the U. S. Air Force with the sound background of high-school studies. With this excellent foundation, the student of today is preparing himself to serve in responsible assignments in the Air Force of tomorrow." High-school teachers will find this handbook especially valuable in helping students to select courses of study. Students, likewise, will find it of much interest and help. The main body of the handbook describes the duties performed in each of the forty-two career fields involved in the air force service, suggests educational preparation, and explains what training the Air Force itself provides for its men. Other sections contain information on pay and allowances, requirements for enlistment, opportunities for advancement and training leading to commission as an Air Force officer. Of particular interest to schoolmen is the section of the handbook devoted to the topic of "Stay in School." The opening sentence of this section states: "You can greatly enhance your opportunity for rapid advancement in the U. S. Air Force by completing high school before you join." Copies of this manual may be secured from the following address: Headquarters, U. S. Air Force, The Pentagon, Washington 25, D. C.

THREE-YEAR CONSERVATION PROJECT.—To help increase the emphasis on conservation teaching in biology programs, the National Association of Biology Teachers has initiated a three-year project with the assistance of a grant-in-aid from the American Nature Association. Descriptions of outstanding programs underway now are being solicited by state chairmen and committees. The committees are particularly interested in how various teaching techniques have been used to increase interest in conservation, such as field trips, films, camps, school forests, nature trails, use of community resources and agencies, group work, school-ground projects, fairs, exhibits, and the like. Local, state, regional and national workshops are planned to permit biology teachers and others to develop adequate criteria for good teaching, to share experiences, organize descriptive material submitted by teachers, and to assist in developing projects and programs in schools interested in initiating a stronger conservation program.

A National committee consisting of the state and regional chairmen, and an executive committee of seven will guide the project and be assisted by an Advisory Committee of representatives of twenty-five national conservation groups. Anyone willing to assist in the project in any way, or knowing of biology teachers who are doing an outstanding job in this field are requested

to write to Dr. Richard L. Weaver, Project Leader, P. O. Box 5424, State College Station, Raleigh, N. C.

STUDENT DESIGNS ASKED FOR UN FOUNTAIN PLAQUE.—Art students in the nation's schools are being invited to design a suitable dedication plaque for the fountain being given by the youth of America to the United Nations. No award is being offered except the recognition if the design is used in whole or in part. A suggested design was prepared by Fay Chong, Pacific Northwest artist. It is intended that the plaque bear the official seals of all the states and territories, the UN official emblem, and appropriate wording. Drawings should be mailed to the American Association for the United Nations, Northwest Headquarters, 909 Fourth Avenue, Seattle, Washington.

The fountain itself is being given by America's 30 million grade and high-school youth in the public and private schools of the 48 states, the District of Columbia, the territories of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. The cost will be approximately \$50,000, which is being raised through the pennies, nickels, and dimes given by the school youth. The fountain will be located in the center courtyard of the UN directly in front of the Secretariat Building. Dedication is planned for June, 1952.

WEEKLY SCHOOL NEWS.—One of the latest news publications in the City of Wilmington, Delaware, is a weekly called "The Wilmington Record" which is published each Thursday. The staff of this publication has been especially interested in news from the schools and has already featured a number of special school articles and pictures.

ENRICHING EDUCATION FOR HOME AND FAMILY LIVING.—The following are steps recommended in *Vitalizing Secondary Education* (pp. 87-89), a publication of the U. S. Office of Education, as helpful in the process of developing an effective program of home and family living:

1. Placing emphasis in education on present and future living.
2. Making the curriculum family-centered, relating pupil experiences and activities to family life.
3. Providing opportunities for all age groups to have education for home and family living.
4. Providing for the improvement of all aspects of home and family living as an integral part of the total education program.
5. Giving major attention to determining the curriculum on the basis of personal, family, and community needs, problems, and interests.
6. Using as a basis for curriculum planning and development of teaching procedures the teacher's understanding of the whole personality of each pupil as an individual and of the home from which the student comes.
7. Having greater concern and making better provision for studying the developmental needs of pupils, and using this information as a basis for curriculum planning.
8. Providing a wide range of opportunities for pupils to experience achievement in activities closely related to home life, as a means of developing desired interests, understandings, attitudes, appreciations, abilities, and skills.
9. Providing many "real life experiences" where the family in the home is involved.

10. Stressing the full and satisfying development of each individual within the family.
11. Emphasizing the development and maintenance of desirable attitudes about the home.
12. Developing carefully the objectives, procedures, activities, methods of evaluation, and other aspects of the home and family life education program through co-operative pupil, teacher, parent, and administrator planning.
13. Planning a long-time State and local program, with specific plans developed for each year to deal with the more pressing pupil, home and community needs.
14. Revising the school curriculum to provide for greater flexibility and to take into account experimentation in the home and family life program of the State as a whole.
15. Developing the curriculum co-operatively with the participation of all school personnel who are responsible for phases related to home and family living; organizing the school and its staff so that there is time and expectation that school personnel work together.
16. Maintaining close co-operation with homes of students to correlate home and school experiences effectively.
17. Evaluating achievement in terms of desired changes taking place in pupils as home and community members.
18. Making the curriculum functional by having available for teachers and pupils the necessary materials for effective learning-teaching situations; allowing time in the schedule for the use of these materials.
19. Utilizing community and school resources, both people and materials, to enrich the curriculum.
20. Co-ordinating the school program with that of existing agencies and organizations in the community concerned with the welfare of families.

AIDS FOR USE IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM.—The October, 1951, issue of the *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women* is devoted entirely to the topic of vocational guidance. While all articles are very practical and applicable to counselors, two articles will be of particular interest to most high-school personnel. The first article entitled "Counseling Adolescents about Vocations" describes procedures found helpful. The second article deals with a related area and is entitled "Secondary School Exchange." This article gives excellent suggestions to the school administrators and the person in charge of assembly programs as to what may be done in the way of vitalizing these programs. Practices of specific schools are described in the article. Copies of this issue are available at 85¢ each from the National Association of the Deans of Women, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. This magazine is published four times during the school year—October, January, March, and June. Subscriptions may be placed for the magazine at the rate of \$3.00 a year.

OVERSEAS TRAVEL.—While among many people there seems to be the impression that the international picture is very complex and black, yet a study of statistics of the U. S. Department of Commerce relative to port entries seems to indicate an improvement in international relations. It may be that improvement in international relations can be speeded and brought about by the mutual understandings arrived at by personal visits. Since 1931, aliens

arrived at the ports of the United States to the number of 4,910,234. Of this group 47 per cent arrived on U. S. carriers, while 53 per cent arrived on carriers of foreign registration. In the same period there have been 7,128,704 U. S. citizens return to our country from overseas ports, 56 per cent traveling on U. S. carriers and 44 per cent on foreign carriers. A study of the statistics reveals the tendency on the part of the traveler to shift from domestic to foreign carriers or *vice-versa* as the dollar value shifts. From June 30, 1946, to June 30, 1951, of the 5,899,792 alien and U. S. citizen passengers arriving at ports of our country by sea and air, 3,815,916 entered on carriers carrying the United States' flag, while 2,083,876 entered on carriers carrying foreign flags. Likewise, of these 5,899,792 people, 3,200,973 traveled by air and 2,698,819 traveled by sea.

FOLLOW UP OF GRADUATES.—The Kew-Forest School of Forest Hills, New York, is keenly interested in the follow-up of its graduates, as well as in the keeping of the student body and the school community informed about its school. Periodically it publishes various materials which give this type of information. A recent publication entitled "A Record of Graduates in Colleges" lists the various colleges in which its graduates had enrolled together with the names of the students, the year in which they were graduated from the Key-Forest School, and the year in which they were graduated or will be graduated from the colleges and universities and other post-high-school educational institutions. The names of the Kew-Forest School alumni who have left college for any reason before completing the course are not included except for those who have entered the armed services of the United States. Another of these publications entitled "Essential Facts of the Kew-Forest School" includes in addition to a drawing of the school, information on plans and purposes of the school, the course of study, the extracurricular program, the accrediting association and the New York Regents, regulations governing conduct of pupils, tuition charges, a calendar of events for the school year, and a list of the faculty together with the colleges which these persons attended and the degrees earned.

SCHOOLS AND BETTER LIVING.—This magazine will help answer the question of how a teacher or school administrator can bring his school into direct contact with community problems. This publication shows the how and why. It is written by those who participated. It describes specific programs being carried out by teachers and administrators all over the country. Take, for example, the article *The Pulaski News* (October, 1951, issue) which tells the story of how a high-school newspaper grew into a community newspaper and helped change the town. In this same issue there is described a social unit on arithmetic which brings alive, for the pupil, the important and perennial problem of local taxes. The subscription price is \$2.50 for a year. Write to: Applied Economics, Inc., 40 Church St., Winchester, Mass.

NATIONAL AUDIO-VISUAL CONFERENCE TO BE HELD IN BOSTON.—"Implications of Curriculum Study for the Planning of Audio-Visual Programs" is the theme of the National Audio-Visual Education Conference scheduled in Boston, February 7-9, under the sponsorship of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of the National Education Association. Approximately 800 persons concerned with the direction of instructional materials programs in the

schools throughout the nation are expected to take part in this conference. Program plans call for one full session devoted to the problems in the field of educational television, a general session concerned with the use of audio-visual materials in European countries, and a number of planning groups that will work in specific problem areas of audio-visual education, including buildings and equipment, college and university services, city audio-visual programs, rural audio-visual programs, state audio-visual programs, teacher education in audio-visual methods, and research in audio-visual education, and others.

ADMISSIONS TAXES.—Congress lifted Federal admissions taxes for most school events. The exemption was granted to non-profit agriculture fairs, symphony concerts, and operas receiving substantial support from voluntary contributions, municipal swimming pools, garden tours, high-school (but not college) athletic contests, and entertainments sponsored by churches, educational organizations, charitable organizations, national guard and reserve officers associations, veterans organizations, and police and fire departments. These exemptions will not apply, however, to movies, boxing and wrestling matches, or carnivals, rodeos, and circuses where *paid* professionals take part.

SCHOOL-SCORING TESTS.—A new *school-scoring* edition of the Iowa Tests on Educational Development has been announced. This self-scoring edition has been made available to meet the demand from educators who requested it in an edition they could score themselves—and purchase to fit specific needs. Test booklets are available singly, grouped by scholastic areas, or as a complete battery. There are carbon self-scoring answer pads, as well as answer sheets for machine-scoring. Further information is available from the Iowa Programs Editor, Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10.

FACTS FROM THE SOCIAL SCENE OF INTEREST TO EDUCATORS.—More than 850,000 American farms did not have electric service on June 30, 1951. . . . One fourth of the population of the world has gained political independence within the span of only six years. . . . Costa Rica has more teachers than soldiers. . . . The U. S. private received \$75 a month; the French draftee gets \$1.28 a month; the Iranian, 31 cents a month. . . . Average length of life in the United States has increased to 68 years, highest in the history of mankind. . . . The national universities of Mexico and Peru are observing their four-hundredth anniversaries. . . . The American Federation of Labor "estimates" that the National Association of Manufacturers spends a million dollars a day on pro-business propaganda including "teaching aids for schools." . . . The first session of the 82nd Congress approved spending equivalent to \$636 for every man, woman, and child in the country. . . . Exactly 658 negroes were enrolled as students in medical schools in the United States, this being 2.5 per cent of the total number of medical students. . . . The 82nd Congress in its first session appropriated 89 billion dollars, of which 61 billion goes for defense.

FUNCTIONS SCHOOLS SHOULD SERVE.—Schools planning programs for life adjustment education should make continuous efforts to understand the most significant cultural forces affecting the lives of people now and likely to affect them in the years ahead. School programs should provide the understandings and experiences necessary to meet the demands for democratic world

citizenship. American schools co-operating with schools throughout the world must exchange information, experiences, and practices which have proved to be effective in helping young people live effectively in a modern democratic society.

Schools must provide youth with experiences which will develop the understandings, attitudes, and skills needed for intelligent use of the increased machine power and the increased productivity which it makes possible. Such a program will require far more instruction and experiences in the basic sciences and tools of precision than is now found in most of our schools.

Young people should understand the advance and spread of the technological revolution in terms of its impact upon human society. Schools should help youth understand the pattern of the new social structure and the changed social relationships which advancing technology brings. In short, the modern school should induct youth by stages into full membership in the dynamic local, state, national, and world communities in which they live.

One of the real challenges to schools in the days ahead is that of providing boys and girls opportunities to achieve economic, social, and political maturity. As opportunities for full-time gainful employment are postponed for youth, young people are denied participation in community affairs. Organized education must provide youth with real opportunities for participation as active partners in community affairs. Every community in America needs additional services, and every community has great resources in its youth who are eager to secure status in the community through rendering service. The task of the school is to provide the leadership and skilled direction which will channel youthful energy and talent into a variety of enterprises—orchestras, theater groups, service corps for the hospitals, work groups to maintain parks, and hundreds of other activities which will give status to youth and at the same time build better communities.

Schools can be made significant to each young person in terms of his goals, abilities, and aptitudes by giving him a share in the exciting task of building a better and greater America. The future is bright with adventure and opportunity for those willing to grow and to achieve.—*Vitalizing Secondary Education* (pp. 101-102). U. S. Office of Education.

RECREATION PROVISIONS.—Greater use of public recreation facilities and unprecedented expenditures for public recreation are shown in the 1950 study of municipal and county park and recreation agencies made by the National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York 10. Joseph Prendergast, Executive Director of the Association, announced that the 1950 study showed that over 500,000,000 visits were made by American parents and their children to 24,363 municipal and county playgrounds, recreation buildings, and indoor centers during 1950. There they found 36 different types of recreation facilities and 81 different forms of recreational activity from which to choose, at little or no cost. Among the 36 different types of facilities available to recreation-seeking Mr. and Mrs. Average Citizen and their children were day camps, swimming pools, tennis courts, softball and baseball diamonds, horseshoe courts, picnic areas, and shuffleboard courts. The swimming pools drew the largest attendance with softball diamonds, picnic areas, and park zoos following in that order.

A wide use of public recreation is revealed in the study which listed the following public recreation activities as among the most popular during 1950:

swimming, picnicking, baseball, tennis, ice skating, community celebrations, softball, game-room activities, basketball, volley ball, story telling, square dancing, crafts, community singing, and supervised parties. The unprecedented sum of \$269,000,000 was spent by 2,276 community and county park and recreation agencies in 1950. The report shows that today there are 644,067 acres of parks in 1,388 municipalities in the United States. Among the cities, Washington, D. C. leads with 33,837 acres; followed by New York City with 26,530 acres; Phoenix, Arizona, with 19,211 acres; Denver with 15,132 acres and Los Angeles with 10,350 acres. This study also showed that America's playgrounds have increased twelve-fold since 1910, and that the number of indoor centers have increased thirty times in that same period.

More cities than ever before reported the employment of paid recreation leaders, with 6,784 leaders on a full-time, year-round basis, and over 50,000 on a part-time basis. The study reports that over 100,000 volunteer workers were serving on the playgrounds and other recreation areas of America.

NON-VOTING IS NATIONAL SCANDAL.—"It is a national scandal that so few voters have seen fit to participate in our national elections," Chancellor Albert C. Jacobs said at summer commencement exercises of the University of Denver. "It is a shameful fact that non-voting is increasing; that, as the number of potential voters rises, the percentage of participation in elections declines." And this is happening, Chancellor Jacobs points out, at a time "when alert, responsible, and effective leadership is so desperately needed—the best our country can provide. Constructive improvement of government has never been more imperative," he continued.

A CURRICULUM IN HOME AND FAMILY LIVING.—The following guides for an effective curriculum in home and family living has been listed and described in *Vitalizing Secondary Education* (pp. 81–86), a publication of the U. S. Office of Education:

1. The program is planned for boys as well as girls.
2. The needs, problems, and interests of pupils and their families are the basis for planning, developing, and evaluating programs of home and family living.
3. Students, parents, teachers, and administrators help plan the objectives, procedures, activities, methods of teaching, and evaluation.
4. Home and family life education is strengthened through the co-operative efforts of teachers from all subject-matter areas concerned with this phase of the school program.
5. The program in home and family living is considered an important phase of the total school program.
6. Satisfying human relationships are given major emphasis in programs of home and family living.
7. The ultimate goal for each individual is ability to function effectively as a member of the home and community.
8. A variety of teaching aids and methods is utilized.

A TEACHER'S CHECKLIST ON VALUES.—*Teaching moral and spiritual values* is the job of every public-school teacher, in all grade levels in every subject, says the Educational Policies Commission in its recent book on the subject. How are you doing your job?

1. Do you consider the character development of your pupils to be a major objective of your teaching?

2. Have you ever put in writing a list of the specific values which you try to teach?

3. In your relations with others (including your pupils and fellow-teachers), do you try to live by the values which you seek to teach?

4. Do you encourage your pupils to make their own decisions on courses of conduct, refraining from telling them just what to do and what not to do?

5. Do you encourage the expression of, and show respect for, the ideas of individual students even when those ideas are unpopular or are rooted in ignorance?

6. Do you help the children or youth in your class to realize that they will achieve greater happiness in the long run if they sometimes forego momentary pleasure?

7. Do you refrain from indoctrinating your pupils with your own religious beliefs?

8. If you have a pupil who feels different from his classmates because of his "peculiar" religious beliefs or practices, do you reassure him that his religion is right for him?

9. If you have a pupil who feels different from his classmates because he and his family do not profess any religion, do you help him to feel comfortable with his lack of a creed?

10. Do you teach about religion, without hesitation and objectively, whenever the subject naturally comes up in your class?

11. Do you discuss the behavior problems and character development of your pupils with their parents?

12. Do you remind the citizens of your community that they inescapably share with their schools the responsibility for the moral conduct of the youth in their community?

To the extent that each teacher answers "yes" to the above questions your teaching is in accord with the recommendations of the Educational Policies Commission in their 100-page report, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (available from the NEA, Washington 6, D. C., at one dollar.)

SCHOOL TV SHOWS.—The public schools of Wilmington, Delaware, have inaugurated a series of school TV programs which are held weekly during the school year at 2 p.m. each Sunday afternoon over the local station WDEL-TV. These programs are planned and presented by school personnel and students of the city's school system. Some of the topics already presented on the half-hour show are: "A Social Studies Project," "Displaced Persons," "Parents Problem Clinic," "Careers," a musical program, "Christmas Music and Drama" and "The Spirit of Christmas."

WORLD EVENTS.—Warner Pathe News is producing a series of films prepared especially for school use. This series is known as *The News Magazine of the Screen*. The aim of *The News Magazine of the Screen* is to promote, accurately and without bias, an understanding of what is going on in the world around us. Such an understanding should go deeper than the headline events of wars, political changes, and disasters. It should include the sciences and the arts. It should find roots in the American past and hope in the American future.

The first story "The World In the Camera" is a review of late news events from Washington, D. C., the state of Washington, Algeria, Germany, and Korea. The second story, "Science," presents astonishing views of the earth and the sun and adds to our understanding of these bodies of space. The "Natural History" story takes the viewer to the Everglades for a firsthand look at some of the seldom-seen species that inhabit this territory. "Aviation" shows him some of the latest planes, then underscores the rapid progress in this field with rare films of the work of aviation's pioneers. The "Sports Feature" story tells not only of the National Amateur Golf tournament but also gives a comprehensive picture of the young college student who won it. "Thomas Jefferson" fulfills two purposes, recalling the life and work of a great American and describing an important work of scholarship now going on at Princeton. The producers welcome suggestions and criticisms to guide them in compiling *News Magazines* of the future.

The films are, at the present writing, sponsored by seventeen states, the District of Columbia, and the territory of Hawaii. Following is a list of the sponsors, with the sponsoring agents in parentheses: Arizona (*Phoenix Newspapers, Inc.*); Colorado (*Denver Post*); Connecticut (the Travelers Life Insurance Companies); Florida (the *Miami Herald* and Radio Station WQAM); Georgia (State Department of Education); Illinois (*Chicago Tribune*); Indiana (the *Indianapolis Star and News*); Louisiana (D. H. Holmes Company, Ltd.); Maryland (*The Sunpapers, Inc.*); Massachusetts (the First National Bank of Boston); North Carolina (the Pilot Life Insurance Company); Oklahoma (Phillips Petroleum Company); Eastern Pennsylvania (the *Philadelphia Inquirer*); Western Pennsylvania (*The Pittsburgh Press*); Rhode Island (the Providence Washington Insurance Companies); Tennessee (the *Nashville Tennessean*); Texas (the *El Paso Times*, the *Fort Worth Star and Telegram*, the *Houston Post*, and the *San Antonio Evening News*); Wisconsin (the First Wisconsin National Bank); District of Columbia (the American Security and Trust Company); and territory of Hawaii (United Airlines). The sponsors, in collaboration with the educational authorities in their areas, determine the number of prints necessary to service the schools, and these prints are paid for by the sponsor. The educational authorities have set up a system of distribution so that a minimum number of prints can, through multiple use, cover all the schools of the area within a month. For more complete particulars, write to The News Magazine of the Screen, 625 Madison Ave., New York 22.

NEW TEACHING UNIT READY FOR HOME ECONOMISTS.—A free kit for family economics units of home economics classes to help students learn good money management is being distributed by the Institute of Life Insurance. A highlight of the kit is a new lesson outline prepared in co-operation with Dorothy Ellen Jones, Supervisor of Home Economics for the Cleveland Board of Education. Prepared in response to hundreds of requests from teachers, the outline is designed specifically for home economics classes and is based on the text material in four Institute publications. It covers two important areas of money management, budgeting, and life insurance. The teaching outline is complete with objectives, learning experiences, tests, and references. A vocabulary list is appended and a bibliography is offered of free and inexpensive visual teaching aids.

Included in the Institute's new package are the four educational booklets upon which the outline is developed. One of them, for teachers, is A

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Discussion of Family Money—How Budgets Work and What They Do; this is an informative, up-to-the-minute booklet based on the opinions of independent authorities in this field. The other three publications, available in quantity for distribution to students, are *A Date With Your Future*, designed especially for teen-age girls and prepared with the co-operation of a committee of home economics educators; *Money in Your Pocket*, written for boys and sent only to home economics classes in which boys are enrolled; and for all students, *The Family Money Manager*, a guide to family budgeting which includes a practical budget work sheet. Home economics teachers may receive this new kit free of charge from the Educational Division, Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

THE INTERESTS OF PHARMACISTS.—Recently there has been widespread dissatisfaction among pharmacists, which has created recruiting problems in that profession. In study, Dr. Schwebel makes both practical and theoretical contributions to help solve the dilemma. The vocational interests of people have been measured for a long time on the assumption that job satisfaction underlies interest, but there has been little research to support this view. Dr. Schwebel studied the relationship between vocational interest and job satisfaction. In the process he constructed the Vocational Interest Scale for Pharmacists for the Strong Vocational Interest Blank which he used widely in high schools, colleges, and guidance agencies throughout the country. He also constructed two other experimental scales. To obtain his data, Dr. Schwebel sent or administered the Pharmacy Satisfaction Scale and the Strong Blank to more than 1,700 pharmacists. Returns from 600 pharmacists were used to compile the characteristics of the satisfied and dissatisfied members of the profession. The book reports their reasons for dissatisfaction. The responses of the pharmacists were also used to determine if there was a difference in the interests of those engaged in prescription work as compared with the sales-pharmacist. Finally, the interests of pharmacists are compared with those of the non-pharmacists. Contrary to popular belief, they are found to be closer to those of sales and office workers than to physicians and dentists. A complete report of this study will be found in the recently published book, *The Interest of Pharmacists*. This 84-page book may be secured for \$1.75 from the Columbia University Press, New York 27.

A FIRST-RATE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IS BEST INSURANCE FOR A FREE COUNTRY.—*Forbes Magazine* terms "a first rate educational system" as the "best insurance a free country can have" in an editorial appearing in the August issue of that publication. The editorial states in part: "The fundamental job of passing on the knowledge and appreciation of our heritage is in the hands of our teachers.... Most states properly require high standards of education for their teachers, and most communities through school boards and and parents keep close tabs on how their teachers are doing. But what do we pay these people to whom we entrust the moulding of young American minds? On a national average, about \$50 a week! Considerably less than a plumber, carpenter, coal miner or truck driver. A more stupid economy is hard to imagine.... As a country we should strive to attract some of the best minds to the teaching profession. Teachers, instead of being underpaid and heckled, should be well paid and respected.... The Communists know the almighty importance of education. To insure that the Russian people will never know

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EMPLOYMENT OF ADOLESCENTS IN INDUSTRY.—The American Medical Association after study of the employment situation has released a report of their study. Included in the report are the following statements and recommendations: The number of minors 14 to 18 years of age employed full or part time in non-agricultural pursuits rose from about 418,000 in 1940 to two million in 1945, at the peak of the industrial expansion in World War II. Whereas in 1940, only 67,000 children under 16 years of age were working, mainly part time, the figure had risen to 550,000 in 1945. In April, 1950, there were 1,337,000 children 14 to 17 years old in non-agricultural employment. Some of these youth had left school to go to work, while others were working part time in addition to school. There are today two million less young persons 14 to 19 years of age than there were in 1940. The potential of youth population will reach its lowest point in 1952 and will not increase significantly until 1958.

The experience of World War II, when standards for the protection of the health of adolescents were generally not in force, showed that many youth, attracted by high wages, dropped out of school prematurely or broke down physically under the combined strain of school and excessive hours of work. There was a concurrent rise in the number of minors injured in industrial accidents. Young persons leaving school to go to work have manifested considerable instability resulting in frequent absences and shifting from job to job.

The paramount problem in manpower conservation for the adolescent group is to train these young people and protect their physical and emotional health during this critical period in their development, so that they come to future manpower reserves with optimum health and training. Positive action now will help to prevent the greatly accelerated movement of youth out of school which occurred during World War II. The Committee, on recommendation of its consultants, suggests:

1. The use of persons under 18 years of age as a source of additional manpower in the present emergency should not be encouraged.
2. If necessary, they might be used on a vacation or part-time basis while attending school with strict regulation of the type of work in which they may engage and the conditions under which they may be employed.
3. Regulations for the protection of the health of young people working part time or during vacations should include:
 - a. A general 14-year age minimum for employment.
 - b. A 16-year age minimum for employment in manufacturing industries.
 - c. An 18-year age minimum for hazardous occupations.
 - d. A maximum 8-hour day or 40-hour week for minors under 18 years when school is not in session.
 - e. A maximum work week of 18 hours for children under 16 years attending school and of 24 hours for minors of 16 and 17 attending school.
 - f. Regulation of night work for minors under 18 years.

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DRIVING TRAINING.—California leads the nation in training its high-school students to be safe drivers, the Governor's Highway Safety Conference was told as the state received its third Superior Award in as many years in the National High School Driver Education Award Program sponsored by the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies. The 110,953 students enrolled in driver training courses during the 1950-1951 term in California was the largest state group of high-school trainees in the nation. This army of boys and girls learning to be safe drivers when they take the wheel of the family car or their own automobile exceeded by nearly 32,000 the next highest state total of 79,000 trainees in high schools in Illinois, New York, and Massachusetts were third and fourth in total number of pupils enrolled, with 43,653 and 43,634 respectively.

According to the Association, research studies have shown repeatedly that students who take driver education courses in their high schools usually have only a third as many accidents as those who do not have the benefit of this training. More than 2,000,000 boys and girls have been given these courses in the nation as a whole since 1947. Upwards of 660,000 are now being turned out of these classes annually and high-school-trained drivers now comprise about 3 per cent of the nation's 60,000,000 driving population.

The purpose of the Association's Driver Education Award Program is to give recognition to those state governmental agencies responsible for public education and highway safety, and to mark the progress of non-official groups within a state which have consistently supported high-school driver education programs. Each California high school which conducted a driver education course during the 1950-51 school year received from the Association a certificate reproduction of the plaque presented at the conference.

In addition to California, the states which qualified for Superior Awards this year were Arizona, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin. Meritorious Awards, presented to states giving driver education courses in more than 25 percent of their schools, with at least 25 percent of eligible students enrolled, were won by 19 states and the District of Columbia. The "meritorious" states are: Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming. A special award also was given for the first time this year to New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Vermont for unusual progress in developing driver education courses in private and parochial schools.

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REORGANIZATION OF U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION.—Two measures were introduced during the first session of the 82nd U. S. Congress providing for the reorganization of the U. S. Office of Education as an independent Federal Education Agency, and for the creation of a national Board of Education. The bills are H.R. 1336, introduced by Representative Carroll D. Kearns (R-Penna.) and H.R. 3180 introduced by Representative Charles E. Potter (R-Mich.). By the terms of this legislation the independent Federal Education Agency would carry out the functions and exercise the powers presently vested in the U. S. Commissioner of Education and the U. S. Office of Education. The Board of Education would be composed of eleven members chosen solely for their "character, ability, and interest in education" for eleven-year terms by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate. The Board would appoint the Commissioner of Education and would "exercise general control and supervision of the operation of the Federal Education Agency" but would wield no control over any phase of education. Plans for the reorganization of the U. S. Office of Education have also been submitted along the lines recommended by the Hoover commission proposing the establishment of a new department of education and public welfare with the secretary of the department holding Cabinet rank.

GENERAL FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION.—During the first session of the 82nd Congress, a total of seven House bills and two Senate bills were introduced providing for Federal aid to education for current operating costs. They were: H.R. 545 by Perkins (D-Ky.), H.R. 416 by Werdel (R-Cal.), H.R. 1337 by Kearns (R-Penna.), H.R. 915 by Fogarty (D-R. I.), H.R. 2978 by Golden (R-Ky.), H.R. 3934 by Harris (D-Ark.), H.R. 4468 by Barden (D-N. C.), S. 947 by Murray (D-Mont.) and McMahon (D-Conn.), and S. 397 by Langer (R-N.D.). Although these bills are somewhat similar in general intent, variations occur in the eligibility requirements placed upon the states in the amount of funds to be made available, in the floor set for the basic expenditure per pupil, and in whether aid should be confined to the public schools or should also be authorized for certain non-public school auxiliary services such as transportation. One bill, introduced in the Senate by Senator Murray (D-Mont.), proposes federal aid to be used exclusively for teachers' salaries.

The general Federal aid bill conforming most closely to NEA policy is H.R. 4468, introduced on June 14, 1951, by Representative Graham A. Barden, Chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee. The Barden bill would authorize an amount of \$314.5 million per year for assistance to the states and territories over a three-year period. The money would be limited to aid for salaries for teachers, supervisory and maintenance staff personnel, for laboratory equipment, and for building maintenance. The funds would be used to supplement state and local expenditures to raise current expenditures as nearly as possible to a minimum of \$150 per year per pupil in average daily attendance, and would be apportioned among the states on the basis of an objective formula in direct ratio to the number of children to be educated and in inverse ratio to the ability of the respective states to finance their public schools.

As the session ended the House Education and Labor Committee had not held hearings on H.R. 4468 nor on any other general Federal aid measure. When the Congress reconvenes, however, the legislation will still be before the Committee and hearings may be scheduled during the second session.



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THE VOICE OF DEMOCRACY.—American manufacturers, working through the Radio-Television Manufacturers Association, have completed plans for presenting either radio-phonograph combinations or television receivers to each of the state and territorial winners in the forthcoming *Voice of Democracy Contest* for high-school students. Arrangements have been made to present winners in each of the 48 states, Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia with nationally-known receivers. These awards are in addition to the \$500 college scholarships, a one-week all-expense trip to the nation's capital, radio-television phonograph combinations, and other prizes given by the sponsors to the four co-equal national winners in the broadcast script writing and voicing competition. The *Voice of Democracy Contest*, now in its fifth year, opened in conjunction with the celebration of National Radio and Television Week, Oct. 28–Nov. 3, under sponsorship of the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, Radio-Television Manufacturers Association, and the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce.

Under rules of the contest, students of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades write and voice five-minute broadcast scripts on the subject, "I Speak for Democracy." Scripts are prepared at the close of National Radio and Television Week, during which America's broadcasters presented a series of five model talks by outstanding Americans to be used as background material by the contestants.

Following competitions to determine winners at the school and community levels, transcriptions of these are then judged at the state level. Transcriptions of the state and territorial winners are forwarded to the Contest Committee's national headquarters in Washington, D. C., where they are auditioned to select a dozen finalists. These finalists are submitted to a judging panel, comprised of eight eminent citizens, for the choosing of four coequal national winners. Judging transcriptions are made available through co-operation of the nation's radio broadcasting stations which cut the disks for the community and state victors. The four final winners will be announced by the national Committee on Feb. 1, and will receive their prizes at an awards luncheon in Washington, D. C. on Feb. 22.

BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES FILMS.—This Service provides a wealth of films and filmstrips that are timely and of extreme informative value to American schools. A special *Bibliography of Health Films* listing thirty-four 16mm sound films on many subjects pertaining to mental and physical health, including welfare, rehabilitation, hygiene, and sanitation, which should be in every film library, is available free from the Service. Following are some of the more recently produced films and filmstrips now available in 16 mm sound from the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Century of Progress—Navigation. (A 35 minute filmstrip, captioned, 26 frames, with study guide, \$3.00) Navigation means not only finding the way, but being able to arrive at the right time. Since the mid-nineteenth century, progress in this science and art has surpassed anything previously achieved. The charts, instruments and other aids of a ship's captain in 1850 would now be hopelessly inadequate to meet present-day commercial and naval demands. As in other things, war brought great stimulus to progress in navigation. Greatest advances have come since the 1940's, making travel faster, safer, and cheaper.

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The Debate Continues. (30 minutes, black and white, rental \$3.75, sale \$75.) Commemorating the rebuilding, the reopening and dedication of the bombed House of Commons, this film shows the formal reopening of one of the most important institutions in the tradition of British life. Included in this brilliant and timely documentary film are speeches by three of the most important figures in the world today, upon whom all eyes are focused now, King George, Clement Attlee, and Winston Churchill.

How Britain Votes. (18 minutes, black and white, rental \$2.50, sale \$55.) Here is the entire British election machinery in action. In detail, every step is clearly shown—the selection of a candidate, the work of his local election agent, canvassing, polling, the work of the returning officer, right up to the opening of Parliament and the preparations made at headquarters for the next election based on the results of the last.

Mother of Parliaments. (10 minutes, black and white, rental \$1.50, sale \$32.50.) A shorter version of "The Debate Continues", this film contains the major scenes of the reopening of the House of Commons and shots of many of the famous British personages.

This Is Britain—Health. (9 minutes, black and white, rental \$1.50, sale \$32.50.) This film deals with three health items—the first, the work of the Harvard Hospital on research into the origin of the common cold; the second, a thorough exploration of the method by which hypodermic needles are manufactured from a bar of steel to the doctor's skilled hand; and the third, the making, fitting, and working of artificial limbs. The last subject is particularly important today in the rehabilitation of millions of war casualties.

WAYNE UNIVERSITY FILMSTRIP.—*Transportation—Our Nation's Bloodstream* is the first of the 1951–1952 series of contemporary affairs filmstrips produced by the Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, Wayne University. The nation's vast and efficient network of transportation, and its importance to our economy, is emphasized in the filmstrip. A broad concept of transportation—one which includes such mediums as pipelines, conveyor belts and elevators—is presented.

The filmstrip closes by presenting, for post-showing discussion, some of the problems created by our transportation system. Prints list at \$3.50 each and may be purchased either from Current Affairs Films, 18 East 41st St., New York, or from Wayne University, College of Education, Detroit 1, Michigan.

POPULAR SCIENCE FILMSTRIP.—Three new agricultural filmstrip series in full natural color, *Selection of Breeding Stock—Beef*; *Selection of Breeding Stock—Sheep*; and *Selection of Breeding Stock—Hogs* (\$12 each) are available from the Audio-Visual Division, Popular Science Publishing Company, 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N. Y. Each of the three new livestock filmstrip

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POPULATION TRENDS.—The "baby boom" that started about 1942 means that the U. S. will probably have a growing population and labor force, as well as an expanding economy, until at least the year 2000. The highest year for births was about four million in 1947, up 60 per cent from the depression 30's, and births are continuing at a very high level. The effects of this high birth rate are already beginning to cause severe crowding problems in elementary schools and enrollments will grow at least 30 per cent more in the next six years. High-school enrollments this year are just starting up from a low point and will increase one-third by 1960.—*Guidance Newsletter*.

FAMILY FINANCIAL SECURITY EDUCATION.—Five publications on financial security education created by a summer workshop at the University of Pennsylvania are now available without charge from the Committee on Family Financial Security Education. Three of the new publications are resource units primarily for use in secondary schools, and two are bibliographies, one of them describing supplementary teaching aids and the other motion pictures and filmstrips. They may be obtained by writing the offices of the Committee at 488 Madison Ave., New York 22, N. Y.

Prepared at the first workshop on Financial Security Education, the resource units were written by a group of thirty-two teachers and school administrators, working under the guidance of the University faculty. The three resource units are: *Building for Family Financial Security in Home and Family Living* (59 pp.); *Partnership in Family Financial Security in the Early Years of Marriage*; and *Family Financial Security Education for Mathematics Students* (36 pp.). Two bibliographies are *Some Supplementary Teaching Aids on Financial Security Education*, a sixteen page list of free and inexpensive materials, and a *List of Motion Pictures and Filmstrips on Financial Security*, one of the

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PUBLIC RELATIONS FOR TEACHERS.—Two public relations courses are being offered for teachers at East Los Angeles Junior College as reported by Dr. John Howard, dean of the evening division. The success of the initial course last spring resulted in further demand for practical public relations training as applied to public schools. Two salary points and two units of college credit may be earned by the Los Angeles teachers with each course. Both are offered under the Journalism and Public Relations Department. Titles of the courses are "Public Relations" and "Public Relations Techniques." The instructor for both courses is John McCoy, public relations director at Fluor Corporation.

The introductory course, "Public Relations," is designed to help those teachers and administrators interested in the broad aspects of relationships with the public. Ways of promoting favorable relations with various segments of the public are given consideration. Various media for telling the story of education to the public are discussed together with the need for a two-way approach by which the schools endeavor to understand public needs and desires as well as interpreting the schools to the people. In the course, "Public Relations Techniques," the advanced theory of public relations techniques in various projects is presented. Problems of members of the class are given special attention.

VISITING DAY FOR PARENTS.—Parents of graduating junior high school youngsters at Red Bluff, Cal., meet with Supt. James G. Bunker and the system's counseling staff at a series of evening meetings. High-school program objectives are explained and parents' views are sought. Motion pictures are shown which feature the high-school activities program. A parent who attends Red Bluff "back-to-school" finds himself with a copy of his child's program and a name tag on his coat. Then he follows his child's program and meets all of the child's teachers.—*Trends*.

RECOMMENDED READING FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS.—The Parents' Institute Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 17, N. Y., has released a list of 100 recommended books for youth reading. Among those recommended for pupils 12 years of age and older are:

Chariot in the Sky—Arna Bontemps (Winston)
 North Woods Whammy—Clyde Brion Davis (Lippincott)
 Peddler's Girl—Elizabeth Howard (Morrow)
 The Organdy Cupcakes—Mary Stolz (Harper)
 Everyday Machines and How They Work—Herman Schneider (Whittlesey House)
 Teru: A Tale of Yokohama—Luch Herndon Crockett (Holt)
 Door to the North—Elizabeth Coatsworth (Winston)
 Peter Graves—William Pene DuBois (Viking)
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OUR AMERICAN SCHOOLS.—*Our American Schools* is the title of a 32-page supplement published November 7, 1951, by Scholastic Magazines, 351 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N. Y. Copies of this supplement may be purchased at the following prices: less than 10 copies, 25¢ each; 10 to 99 copies, 20¢ each; 100 to 999 copies, 15¢ each; and 1,000 or more copies, 10¢ each. This publication will be found helpful in the school's attempt to familiarize the American people with their greatest enterprise—education. It discusses the 3 "R's," school board, teachers, the well-equipped school, the cost of education, and many other important topics.

NOTES IN BRIEF.—The NEA is the largest publisher of educational literature in the world. . . . In 1950, 28.4 times as many Negroes were attending colleges as in 1900. For every Negro who received an A. B. degree 50 years ago, 84 Negroes now receive the degree. . . . A survey made by the U. S. Office of Education reveals that 333 out of every 1000 pupils who were in the fifth grade in 1926-27 were graduated from high school in 1934. In 1948, high schools graduated 481 out of every 1000 who were in the fifth grade in 1940-41. . . . One fifth of the world's population today lives on an average per capita income of less than 10 cents a day. . . . Eighteen million babies were born in the U. S. in the five years since the end of World War II—more than any previous five-year period in the history of our nation. . . . There are now 644,067 acres of parks and playgrounds in 1388 municipalities in the United States. . . . American parents bought \$3,300,000,000 worth of life insurance on children under 15 in 1950. . . . "The Living Blackboard" is a televised educational program provided by the board of education and station WPIX for New York's homebound high school students.—*NEA News*.

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- West Virginia High-School Principals Conference (Colored)—*Lawrence V. Jordan*, Principal, State College High School, Institute, West Virginia.
- Wisconsin Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Eric Becker*, Principal, High School, Beaver Dam, Wisconsin.
- Wyoming Association of Secondary-School Principals—*S. R. Clark*, Assistant Superintendent, Cheyenne Schools, School Admin. Building, Cheyenne, Wyoming.





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